

A HISTORY OF ENGLAND



H. O. ARNOLD-FORSTER

R. Davidson
1901

A HISTORY OF ENGLAND

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A LIST OF THE VARIOUS COUNTRIES, ISLANDS, TERRITORIES AND POSSESSIONS WHICH MAKE UP THE "BRITISH EMPIRE" AND IN WHICH THE "UNION JACK" FLIES (1898).—

THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

	Population.
England and Wales	29,002,525
Scotland	4,025,647
Ireland	4,704,750
The Isle of Man	54,000
The Channel Islands	90,000

Great Countries chiefly inhabited by Englishmen—

NORTH AMERICA.	
Canada	5,000,000
Newfoundland	198,000

AUSTRALASIA.	
New South Wales	1,134,000
Victoria	1,140,500
New Zealand	668,000
Queensland	394,000
South Australia	315,000
Western Australia	50,000
Tasmania	151,500

Places colonised by Englishmen, but in which those of English descent are outnumbered by natives, or those of some other race—

SOUTH AFRICA.	
Cape Colony	1,525,000
Natal	543,000
Griqualand West	50,000
Bechuanaland	Not ascertained.
Zululand	" "
Walfisch Bay	" "

NOTE.—In the South African colonies there are a large number of persons of Dutch descent as well as the natives.

WEST AFRICA.	
Gambia	14,000
Gold Coast and Lagos	450,000
Sierra Leone	74,000

ASIA.	
Straits Settlements	600,000

SOUTH AMERICA.	
British Guiana	285,000
British Honduras	31,500

Islands forming part of the Empire and colonised by men of English race, but in which

there is still a large number of natives, or persons not of English race—

Bahamas (West Indies)	48,000
Barbados (North Atlantic)	172,000
Ceylon (Indian Ocean)	3,000,000
Fiji Islands (Pacific Ocean)	125,000
Jamaica and Turk's Island (West Indies)	639,500
Labuan (China Seas)	6,000
Leeward Islands (West Indies)	120,000
Mauritius (Indian Ocean)	378,000
New Guinea (East Indies) Not ascertained	
Trinidad (West Indies)	188,500
Windward Islands (West Indies) including :—	
Grenada	53,000
St. Lucia	42,000
St. Vincent	41,000
Tobago	18,000

Places and Islands kept partly for commercial purposes, but chiefly as military ports to protect the Empire—

MEDITERRANEAN.	
Gibraltar	25,000
Malta	165,500
Cyprus	210,000

RED SEA.	
Aden	} 44,000
Perim	

CHINA SEAS.	
Hong Kong	221,000

NORTH ATLANTIC.	
Bermuda	15,000

SOUTH ATLANTIC.	
Ascension	200
St. Helena	4,000

Possessions under the Governor-General of India, peopled by a number of native races, under the Government of a few Englishmen—

India	} 286,000,000
Burmah*	

Countries under the protection of the British Empire—

Zanzibar and the parts of Africa striped red in the map.

* Upper Burmah, of which the population is not yet exactly known, was annexed to the British Empire in 1886.



THE CROSS OF "ST. GEORGE"
FOR ENGLAND.



THE CROSS OF "ST. ANDREW"
FOR SCOTLAND.



THE CROSS OF "ST. PATRICK"
FOR IRELAND.



THE "UNION JACK," THE FLAG OF OUR COUNTRY.

The UNION JACK is made up of the three Crosses of ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, and IRELAND, and is thus truly the flag of the UNION. In the early history of England the Red Cross of St. George by itself was the Flag of England. When the Crowns of England and Scotland were united at the accession of James the VI. of Scotland to the throne of England, under the title of James the 1st, King of Great Britain and Ireland, the White Cross (or Saltire) of St. Andrew was added to the Cross of St. George; but it was not until the Act of Union between England and Scotland in 1707 that the flag containing the Crosses of England and Scotland became by law the National Flag. In 1801, after the Union with Ireland, the Red Cross of St. Patrick was added, and thus the UNION JACK was made up.

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HISTORY OF ENGLAND

FROM THE LANDING OF JULIUS CÆSAR
TO THE PRESENT DAY

BY
H. O. ARNOLD-FORSTER

Author of

"THE CITIZEN READER," "THE LAWS OF EVERY-DAY LIFE," "THIS WORLD OF OURS,"
"THINGS NEW AND OLD," "IN A CONNING TOWER," ETC.

WITH ABOUT 250 ILLUSTRATIONS

Twelfth Thousand

THIRD EDITION, REVISED

CASSELL AND COMPANY, LIMITED

LONDON, PARIS, NEW YORK & MELBOURNE

1900

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To

WILLIAM EDWARD ARNOLD-FORSTER,

FOR WHOSE BENEFIT AND INSTRUCTION

IT WAS ORIGINALLY DESIGNED.

AND TO WHOSE FRIENDLY CRITICISM OF ITS PROOF-SHEETS

THE AUTHOR HAS FREQUENTLY BEEN INDEBTED,

THIS BOOK IS DEDICATED BY HIS

AFFECTIONATE FATHER

PREFACE.

THERE is, and it may be hoped there will always be, a demand for a history of England. It would be idle to pretend that the supply is not large and in many respects adequate. At the same time there are undoubtedly many thousands of persons who have neither the means to purchase, nor the leisure to peruse, the great standard works with which the genius and industry of modern historians have happily endowed us, and who yet wish to know something of their country's past, and to understand how, from very small beginnings, our nation has achieved its present great position among the peoples of the earth.

Those who are acquainted with the teaching of history in many of our public and private schools must be aware that the subject often fails to interest, and that some of the historical summaries now in use, though accurate and admirable in many respects, are read as a task and not as a pleasure. In many homes also there is undoubtedly a demand for a History of England of manageable size at a reasonable cost, and written in such a manner as to attract and not to repel young readers. And while it is believed that the present volume may to some extent meet the requirements of schools and of young readers at their homes, it is believed that it may also be found useful to a still larger circle of readers.

A small book, written in simple language, sufficiently full to serve for reference, and at the same time sufficiently interesting to be read as well as to be consulted, a book

within the reach of all in matter of price, and rendered attractive by good illustrations copied from first-rate originals, is what very many English men and women, both young and old, undoubtedly require. To supply such a book has been the sole aim of the author. How far success has attended his efforts, the fortunes of this volume, when launched on its career, will show.

A few words may be permitted with regard to the character of the book itself. In adding yet one more volume to the great library of English historical literature, some explanation, or perhaps indeed some apology, is due from the author. To apply the term "A History of England" to a single small volume may seem presumptuous. The record of our national life is so full, so long, so crowded with incident, so elaborate, that even great histories, written in many volumes by master hands, can only illustrate and cannot exhaust the theme to which they are devoted. The author of the present work is very conscious of the fact, and yet is reluctant to introduce his book by any such repellent title as "A Summary," or "An Outline of English History." Such titles seem on the face of them to imply that the element of interest and the romance inseparable from the life and doings of individuals are excluded, and that an amplified chronological table has been made to do duty for a history. But to read English history and fail to realise that it is replete with interest, sparkling with episode, and full of dramatic incident, is to miss all the pleasure and most of the instruction which its study, if properly pursued, can give.

An attempt has therefore been made in the present volume to clothe the skeleton of chronological fact with the flesh and blood which are essential parts of the animated and living figure. In so small a book such an object can only be achieved by sacrificing very much that might well be included in a larger

work. It has been necessary to select certain episodes and certain periods for detailed description, while other episodes and other periods receive but scant mention or are relegated to the "Summaries" which will be found at the heads of chapters. But throughout, a consistent endeavour has been made to maintain the thread of interest in the story, and the episodes selected for detailed description are, in the opinion of the author, those which most fittingly express the cardinal fact or the dominating idea of the time in which they occur. If an apparently undue number of pages be devoted to the story of Henry II. and Becket, it is because the story itself is an illustration of the great struggle between the royal and the ecclesiastical power which marked the time. The story of Magna Charta occupies more space than the record of other periods crowded with incident; but the Charter, from the date of its signature down to the present day, is a dominating fact in the whole history of England. The Reformation and the great intellectual revival by which it was preceded and accompanied are treated at some length; and in this and in other instances pains have been taken to give life to the story and to make it interesting to the reader as well as serviceable to those whose studies are, unfortunately for himself, undertaken only with the view of qualifying for an examination.

Of the structure of the book and of its internal history, a word remains to be said. The present volume is based upon a series of books by the author, which have already appeared under the title of "Things New and Old." The earlier part of the series has been almost entirely rewritten. The latter part has been extended and modified in many important particulars, so as to adapt it to general readers, and to make it uniform in style and treatment with the remainder of the volume.

The series on which the present volume is based has undergone the ordeal of public criticism, and the sale of over 100,000 copies has borne testimony to the fact that the work in its earlier shape met the requirements of a considerable number of readers. The author hopes that the present volume will reach even a wider circle, and may be the means of inducing many English men and women to pursue the study of their national history—a study which will amply repay them, and in which even the most diligent student will never exhaust the available material.

H. O. A-F.

A.D. MDCCCXCV:L.

Ann. Reg. LX.

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SCROLL, divided into Centuries, showing Leading Events in each Hundred Years

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A HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

PART ONE.

FROM THE ROMAN TO THE NORMAN.

55 B.C.—A.D. 1066.

NOTE.

The first part of this book contains a short account of the early history of our country. As will be seen from the dates given above, it covers a great period of time—more than eleven centuries. It is very important to bear this fact in mind. In this book, and indeed in every History of England great or small, the space which is given up to describing the events which took place between the landing of the Normans in 1066 and our own time is much larger than that which is given up to a description of the eleven centuries which went before. It is natural that this should be so, because the later we come down in history the more numerous are the records from which we learn what took place. We have much greater knowledge of what occurred in the reign of Queen Elizabeth than we have of what took place in the time of Egbert or Alfred. But it must not be supposed that because we have comparatively little knowledge of what took place in England a thousand or fifteen hundred years ago, the events of those days are without importance, or fail to have their effect in forming the character of the English people as they now are. If we look at the chart which appears at page 104 we shall see at a glance what is the true proportion in the two periods of English history of which we have been speaking, and we shall learn to remember that eleven centuries passed between the day when Julius Cæsar landed at Deal, and

that on which William the Conqueror landed at Hastings; while, from the time of the Norman landing to the days of Queen Victoria is less than nine centuries.

The great points on which we should fix our attention in reading the history of this period may be shortly put thus :—

THE ROMAN CONQUEST, *which throws the first light upon our island, and which gives us some knowledge of the Britons who then inhabited it.*

THE GREAT ANGLO-SAXON, OR ENGLISH INVASION, *which laid the foundation of our people and of our language.*

THE CONVERSION TO CHRISTIANITY.

THE STRUGGLE WITH THE DANES, *which helped to unite the English people under one head.*

THE NORMAN CONQUEST, *which gave the nation discipline, strength, and law.*

CHAPTER I.

THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN.

55 B.C.—A.D. 436.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED DURING THE TIME OF THE ROMAN OCCUPATION OF BRITAIN.

Julius Cæsar, b. 100 B.C., assassinated 44 B.C.

Pompey the Great, b. 106 B.C., d. 48 B.C.

Mark Antony, b. 83 B.C., d. 30 B.C.

Augustus Cæsar, first Roman Emperor, b. 63 B.C., d. A.D. 14.

JESUS CHRIST.

Tiberius Cæsar, Emperor, b. 42 B.C., d. A.D. 37.

Titus, Emperor, b. A.D. 40, d. 81.

Hadrian, Emperor, b. A.D. 76, d. 138.

Severus, Emperor, b. 146, d. 211.

Constantine the Great, b. 274, d. 337.

Cassivelaunus.

Caractacus taken prisoner, 51.

Boadicea, Queen of the Iceni, d. 62.

Suetonius, a Roman general.

Virgil, the great Roman poet, b. 70 B.C., d. 19 B.C.

Caius Cornelius Tacitus, the Roman writer, b. 55, d. about 130.

St. Alban, Martyr, d. 304.

Alaric, King of the Goths.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE ROMAN OCCUPATION OF BRITAIN.

55 B.C. Invasion of Britain by Julius Cæsar.

54 B.C. Second Invasion of Britain by Cæsar.

1 ANNUS DOMINI. The Birth of CHRIST.

A.D. 43 Claudius sends an army to Britain.

47 Vespasian conquers Britain.

51 Caractacus taken prisoner.

62 Death of Boadicea.

70 Destruction of Jerusalem by Titus.

121 Hadrian's wall built.

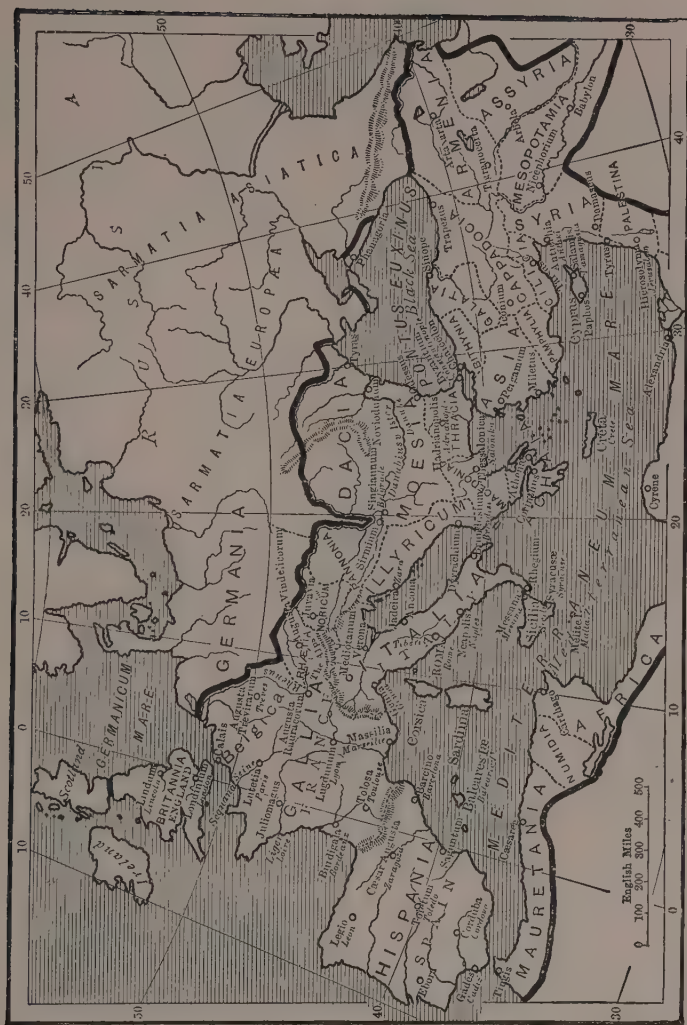
211 Wall of Severus built.

304 Death of St. Alban.

316 Constantine, first Christian Emperor.

402 to 436 Withdrawal of the Romans from Britain.

410 Alaric besieges and takes the City of Rome.



THE EMPIRE OF THE ROMANS.

“Britannia.”

“BRITAIN, the best of islands, is situated in the Western Ocean, between France and Ireland . . . it produces everything that is useful to man. with a plenty that never fails.”—Geoffrey of Monmouth's Chronicle (1140).

FIFTY-FIVE years before the birth of Christ, **Julius Cæsar**, at the head of a Roman army, landed on the shores of England. It is on that day

that the history of England begins.

Long before the coming of Cæsar, men and women had lived and died, and worked and fought, in the land which we now call **England**. But of their sayings and doings we have no record; no historian has told us of their fortunes, and for all that we know of them, they might never have existed.



JULIUS CÆSAR.

Suddenly a great ray of light was thrown upon what before was darkness. Not only did Julius Cæsar land upon the shores of our country, but he wrote down in words which may be read at this day the story of the strange new people he had found, and a description of the far-off country in which they lived. And thus it is true to say that the History of England begins with the landing of Julius Cæsar, fifty-five years before the birth of Christ.

It is now¹ one thousand nine hundred and fifty-five years since the landing took place. At that time there was but one great Empire in the world, and one great people who ruled half Europe and vast possessions in Africa. This was the great *Roman* people, whose chief city was Rome, in Italy, and whose language was the *Latin* tongue in which Julius Cæsar wrote.

News had already come to the Romans that there existed, far away in the Northern seas, an island, or a number of islands, which had never been conquered by the Roman arms. Traders from the Mediterranean sailing up the coast of Spain, and of that country which we now know as France, but which was then called **Gallia**, or **Gaul**, had found land far out in the Atlantic, and landing, had discovered rich deposits of tin which they had worked and brought back to Italy. But the stories of adventurous sailors and merchants were soon to be replaced by a much closer acquaintance. Towards the middle of the last century before Christ, a great man, the greatest of all the Romans, had been appointed to the command of the armies in the Roman province of Gaul.²

This great man was **Julius Cæsar**. Not content with defending the Roman provinces, he carried war into the whole country of the Gauls. Step by step he came nearer to the northern coast, until at length the Roman camps looked down upon the narrow waters which divide France from England. It is only twenty-two miles from Calais to Dover, and from the coast the Roman soldiers must have seen as clearly as we can at the present day the great white cliffs of an "unvisited land," standing high out of the water to the north.

Already they had given a name to this country, and they knew it to be an island. A great Roman writer who lived in Cæsar's day, speaks of **Britain** separated by almost the entire world.³ And the name which the Romans gave to our land we know and are proud to own at the present day. "*Britannia rules the waves.*" Our Queen is Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, and the coins with which we do the business of our daily lives still bear upon them the Latin inscription and the name by which Cæsar called our country.⁴

¹ 1900.

² Gallia, or Gaul, was divided into two parts: Gallia Cis-Alpina, or "Gaul this side of the Alps," and which included that part of North Italy which is now known as Piedmont; and Gallia Trans-Alpina, or "Gaul beyond the Alps," which is now the French district of Provence.

³ "*Penitus toto divisos orbe Britannos*" ("The Britains almost all the world away").—Virgil.

⁴ The words "*Britt: Regina*" on the five-shilling piece (see p. 7) are short for "**Britanniarum Regina**" or, Queen of Britain. The words written round the five-shilling piece in the picture, stand for "*Victoria Dei gratia Britanniarum Regina Fidei Defensor Indiarum Imperatrix.*" The meaning of which is "Victoria, by the grace of God, Queen of Great Britain, Defender of the Faith, Empress of India."

The Landing of the Romans.

*"But Rome! 'Tis thine alone with awful sway
To rule mankind, and make the world obey,
Disposing peace and war thy own majestic way;
To tame the proud, the fettered slave to free;—
These are imperial arts, and worthy thee."*

From Virgil's Æneid, Book VI., translated by Dryden.

Cæsar was not the man to leave this new country unexplored and unconquered. In the year 55 B.C. he collected eighty ships and 12,000



DOVER CLIFFS; "THE WHITE WALLS OF ENGLAND."

men upon the other side of the Channel, close to the place where the town of Calais now stands.

A few hours' sailing and rowing brought the fleet to the foot of the "White Cliffs," but on the shore were to be seen a large number of

the Britons who had come down to oppose the landing. The Romans were disappointed, for they hoped they would have taken the Britons by surprise. They feared to land, and they took their ships farther along the coast, until they came to the place where the town of Deal now stands.



A "CROWN," OR FIVE-SHILLING PIECE.

have to sail away once more, but at this moment a brave Roman soldier came forward. This soldier was the standard-bearer of the Romans. Each regiment in our own army has a flag, which is carried with the regiment, and of which all the soldiers are proud. The Roman regiments were called *legions*, and each legion, instead of a flag had a standard, on the top of which was the figure of an eagle, made in gold or brass.

The standard-bearer, when he saw that the soldiers who were with him in the ship were afraid to land, seized the "eagle" of the legion in his hand, and jumped into the water. "Follow me, my comrades," cried he, "if you would not see your eagle taken by the enemy. If I die, I shall have done my duty to Rome and to my General." When the Roman soldiers saw this brave act, they, too, threw themselves into the water, and though it was deep they waded to the land. The Britons fought courageously against the newcomers, but the discipline

There they made up their minds that they would land; but they found that the water was not deep enough to allow their ships to get to the shore. Here, too, were large numbers of Britons, who were ready to fight them as soon as they got to land. At first it seemed as if they would



ROMAN SOLDIERS.
(From Trajan's column.)

and military training of the Roman soldiers prevailed, and the Roman troops disembarked with safety.

In less than three weeks, however, they were compelled to return to Gaul, and it was not till the summer of the next year (54 B.C.) that Cæsar returned with a large army to complete his conquest. This time the resistance he met with was serious. The Britons had had time to collect a large army, and under a chief of the name of **Cassivelaunus** were able for some time to hold the Romans at bay. The Britons fought in a way to which the Romans were not accustomed. They went into battle driving at full speed in chariots. To the wooden wheels of the chariots, scythes or sharp blades were fastened; and as long as the chariot was moving fast the sharp blades on the wheels cut down those who came near it.

But though the Britons had their chariots, the Roman soldiers proved too strong for them, and at length Cæsar forced his way as far north as the river Thames, near Wallingford, and the Britons, defeated for a time, consented to make peace, to give hostages, and to promise, if not to pay, a yearly tribute. Having thus added another victory to his long list of triumphs, Cæsar returned to Gaul, and thence to Rome, where ten years later (44 B.C.) he met with his death, stabbed by the traitor Brutus and other political enemies in the midst of the Roman senate.

Britain and the Britons.

*"Who can see the green earth any more
As she was by the sources of Time?
Who imagines her fields as they lay
In the sunshine, unworn by the plough?
Who thinks as they thought,
The tribes who once roam'd on her breast,
Her vigorous, primitive sons?"*

Matthew Arnold: "The Future."

So far we have looked at Britain from a Roman point of view; it is time to inquire what sort of people it was who lived in our island when the Roman invasion first threw the light of history upon it.

Of the early Britons, their life and their habits, we know little but what has been told us by the Roman writers. It is fortunate for us that the age of Julius Cæsar was one in which some of the great Roman authors lived, and two of these authors have left us interesting accounts of the Britons. The first account is that given by Cæsar

himself, who not only was a great general and a great statesman, but one of the clearest and best writers of any age.

A second account we get from the pen of one who, as a writer, was even more famous than Cæsar. In a book called the "*Agricola*," **Cornelius Tacitus** has written an account of the Britons as they were a hundred years after the date of Cæsar's landing.

Agricola, the father-in-law of Tacitus, was at that time governor of Britain, and it is the account which he gave to his son-in-law which is contained in the "*Agricola*."



A BRITON AND HIS BOAT.

From what Cæsar and Tacitus tell us we can form some idea of what the Britons were like. By the Romans they were regarded as savages, but it is easy to see, by what the Romans themselves tell us about them, that the Britons were not really savages at all. English people in our own time sometimes make the same mistake which the Romans made, and treat the people of other countries as savages and far below them, just because their habits are strange and their ways of thought are not like our own.

We do not know a very great deal about what the Britons were really like, but we do know some things about them. The men were tall and handsome, and fought bravely in battle; but it seems as if they were rather too fond of fighting, for not only did they fight against the Romans and other enemies who came from abroad, but they often quarrelled and fought amongst themselves. They lived in villages made up of a number of small houses or huts surrounded by a high wall. They lived chiefly by hunting and fishing, and there were always plenty of wild animals to kill and fish to catch, for we must not forget that at the time we are speaking of, England was very different from what it is now; the country was covered with thick forests, and the



STONEHENGE AS IT IS.

(From a photograph by J. Valentine & Sons, Dundee.)

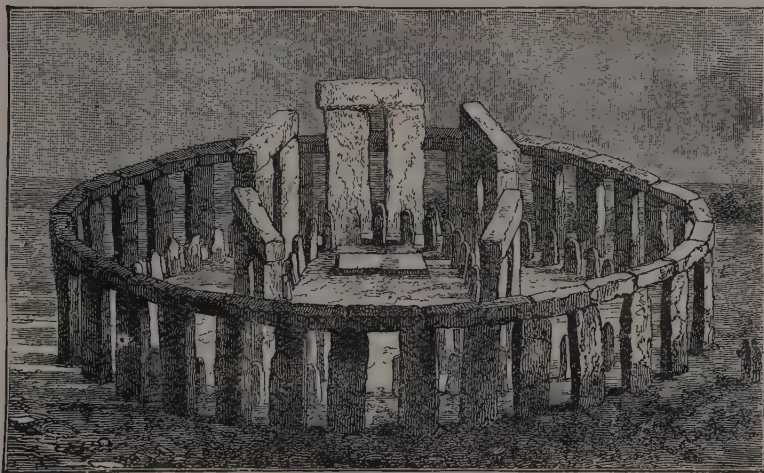
rivers, instead of being shut in between close banks, often spread over the land and made great swamps and marshes. In the forests there were wolves, wild boars, and many other animals which are quite unknown in England in our own day. It was of the skins of these animals that the Britons made their clothes.

The Britons did not drink wine, but they made a strong drink of honey. This drink is sometimes made now; it is called *mead*. The Britons were heathens and believed that there were many gods. Their priests were called **Druids**. These Druids were very strange people; they used to pretend that they had great and terrible secrets which were known to them and to nobody else. They said that their gods lived in the very thickest and darkest parts of the woods, and they

used to go and pray to their gods under the great oaks in the forests; they wore long white robes, and the people held them in great awe.

The Druids have been dead hundreds of years, and their religion has long been forgotten; but there are still some things in England in our own time to remind us of the white-robed Druids and their strange religion.

If we take the train to **Salisbury**, and then take a carriage and drive rather more than ten miles over **Salisbury Plain**, we shall suddenly come



STONEHENGE AS IT WAS.

to a very strange sight. In the middle of the plain we shall see a number of great stones—some of them lying on their sides on the grass, others standing straight up, and some of them resting upon other great stones in the way shown in the picture. The stones are of enormous size and very heavy—many of them are from twenty-three to twenty-eight feet high.

It seems a wonder how such heavy stones ever got to be set up in this way; but we shall find a still more wonderful thing about some of the stones when we come to look more closely at them. We shall find that they are not of the same kind as the stones which are found upon Salisbury Plain, but that they are of a kind which must have come from a long way off.

The place in which these strange stones have been set up is **Stonehenge**, in the middle of Salisbury Plain, and the stones were set up there before the time of Julius Cæsar by the Druids whom we have been reading about. Stonehenge was one of the places where the Druids used to worship their gods; and though no one quite knows why they set up the stones, it is certain that they were looked upon by the Britons as being very sacred.

Once there were a great many more stones standing up than can be seen now. If the stones which have fallen down were still in their places, we should see that the Druids had made two great circles, one inside the other; the outside one of big stones, and the inside one of



THE MISTLETOE BOUGH.

smaller ones. On page 11 there is a picture of what Stonehenge must have looked like before any of the stones fell down. There are other rings of stones in England, but the one at Stonehenge is the largest and most interesting. All these stones were put up by the Druids; and they can be seen to this day by Englishmen, and will help to remind them of the Britons who lived in our land two thousand years ago.

There is another thing besides the great stone circle which ought to remind us of the Druids. Most of us, whether we live in town or country, have seen the sprigs of green leaves with white berries which are put up among the holly and the laurel leaves at Christmas. They are the **Mistletoe** leaves and berries which are gathered from plants which grow on the stems of the trees in Herefordshire, Gloucestershire, and in many other parts of England.

It is not easy at first to guess why it is that **Mistletoe** is hung up in

so many houses at Christmas time. To find out the answer to the question we must go back a very long way in history, until we come to the time of the Druids. It was the Druids who first used the mistletoe. They thought that its berries were sacred or holy, and they often put them up in the places where they prayed to their gods.

We have long forgotten all about the gods to whom the Druids prayed, but we have not forgotten about the mistletoe they were so fond of. The Romans came over and conquered the Britons, the great stones at Stonehenge tumbled down, and many changes, good and bad, took place in England, but the use of the mistletoe bough was never quite forgotten; and when the people of England learned to pray to another God, and found that the gods of the Druids were false gods, they still went on using the sacred mistletoe. And thus it happens that when, in our own time, we come to Christmas Day, the day on which we commemorate the birth of Christ, we still put up in our houses the mistletoe berries, which the old Druids first prized in the time of the Britons.

“In the Year of Our Lord.”

“For unto you is born this day in the city of David, a Saviour, which is Christ the Lord.”—Luke ii. 11.

It was not till nearly a hundred years after Julius Cæsar had gone away that the Romans came a second time into Britain. Julius Cæsar was dead, and the Roman Emperor was **Claudius**. Claudius determined that he would follow the example of Julius Cæsar, but that this time the Britons should be really beaten, and that their country should belong to Rome.

But, before we follow the fortunes of the army which Claudius sent to Britain, there is one thing which we must notice. If we wish to write down the year in which Julius Cæsar came to Britain, we write it in this way—“**55 B.C.**”; but if we want to write the year in which Claudius sent an army, we put—“**A.D. 43.**”

What do “**B.C.**” and “**A.D.**” mean? The letters “**B.C.**” mean “*before Christ*,” and, therefore, “**55 B.C.**” means fifty-five years before Christ was born. The letters “**A.D.**” stand for two Latin words—*Anno Domini*—which mean “*in the year of our Lord.*” “**A.D. 43**” means forty-three years after the year in which Christ was born.

People now sometimes write the year in which we live in this way—they say “A.D. 1897,” or “A.D. 1898,” meaning that the year in which we live is the one thousand eight hundred and ninety-seventh, or the one thousand eight hundred and ninety-eight, year after the year in which Christ was born. Now, we can easily understand that, between the year 55 B.C. and the year A.D. 43, a great thing must have happened.

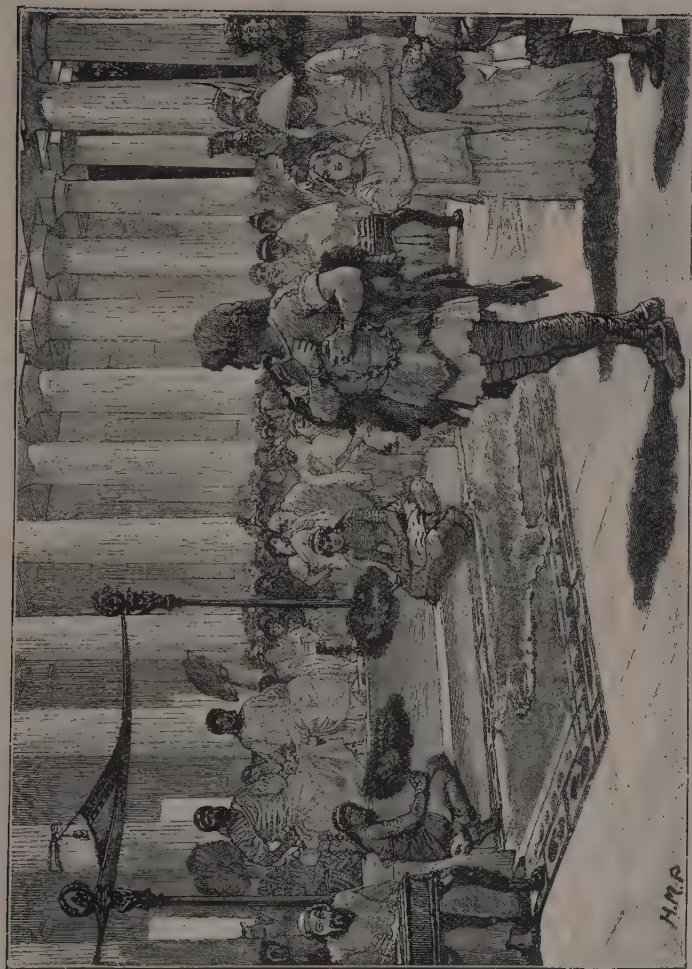
It was in the years between the coming of Julius Cæsar and the coming of the Romans in the time of Claudius that the great event which divides the history of the old world from that of the new had taken place, and that **Christ was born in Bethlehem**. While the memory of the Roman general who had defeated their armies was still fresh in the minds of the people of Britain, and while they were anxiously looking out for the return of the Roman galleys, a Roman Emperor had issued a Decree “that all the world should be taxed,” and a Roman officer commanding in the Province of Judæa had carried out the Imperial order. A Roman magistrate, sitting in the Judgment Hall at Jerusalem, had allowed sentence of death to be passed upon the Prisoner whom the Jews had brought before him. **Jesus** had been crucified, and His death had been the birth of a new hope, of a new life, and of a new faith which was to spread throughout the world. The birthday of England as we know it is almost the same as the birthday of Christianity, and the nineteenth century of the Christian Era is the nineteenth century in the history of our country.

And thus we see that if we want to know when the history of our country, so far as we know anything about it, begins, we have only to remember that it began just before the birth of **Christ**, and that, if we know the year in which we live, we shall know the number of years which have passed since the Romans first came to Britain.

Caractacus and Boadicea.

*“When the British warrior Queen,
Bleeding from the Roman rods,
Sought, with an indignant mien,
Counsels of her country’s gods.”—Cowper.*

When the Romans came with Julius Cæsar, they only stopped in Britain for two years, but when they came a second time under Claudius they, and their descendants after them, remained for over three hundred and sixty years. At first they brought nothing but war and misery with them. The Britons fought fiercely. This time they were



CARACTACUS BEFORE THE EMPEROR CLAUDIUS.

led by a chief called **Caractacus**, who for a long time was able to keep up a successful resistance to the Roman armies. But at last he was beaten in a great battle, and was taken prisoner. He was sent to Rome, and there brought before the Emperor Claudius (A.D. 51).

When Caractacus was brought before Claudius, he spoke to him boldly and told him that he was not ashamed of what he had done, but proud of it—that he had only fought for his country. *“I am in your power,”* said he to the Emperor, *“and you can do what you please with me; but I am only here because I was true to my country, and because I would not promise to obey your laws and to be your servant. You can put me to death, but you will gain more honour if you spare my life.”* When Claudius and the Roman officers who stood with him heard these brave words, they could not help admiring the proud Briton. Claudius commanded that the prisoner’s life should be spared and that he should be well treated.

But the war between the Romans and the Britons did not end when Caractacus was taken prisoner. There arose among the Britons a fresh leader, whose name has become famous in our history. This leader was **Boadicea**, Queen of the Iceni, the widow of one of the British Chiefs.

Boadicea hated the Romans, and she had good reason to do so; for not only had they been very unjust to her husband when he was alive, but when she went to complain to the Roman Governor, instead of doing justice, he ordered her to be seized and to be beaten with rods. Boadicea therefore hated the Romans, both because they were enemies of her country and because they had been cruel to her. She called upon her countrymen to join her in resisting the enemy, and many of them gathered round her, prepared to follow wherever she led them.

It is said that Boadicea was tall and beautiful, with long flowing hair, and that she appeared before her people clad in a long robe and with a gold chain about her waist. Her beauty and her courage made her loved by the Britons, and the Romans soon learnt to fear her. In more than one battle the Britons, under Boadicea, defeated the Roman soldiers, and for a time it seemed as if the brave queen would succeed in driving her hated enemies out of the land.

The Romans had built a town upon the banks of a river which we now call the **Thames**. The name of the town was **Londinium**, a name which we now know much better as **London**. Already Londinium had become a large place, and besides the Romans who lived there, there were many Britons who had taken the side of the Romans. It was to Londinium that Boadicea now led her army. As she came near the town, the Roman soldiers saw that there were not enough of them to resist the great army of the Britons, and they

marched away, leaving behind them all their friends who had trusted them. Soon Boadicea came to the gates, and, once inside the town, the fierce Britons showed no mercy. Thousands of the people of Londinium were killed, and the town was all but destroyed.

But the British Queen had won her last victory. The Roman general, whose name was **Suetonius**, collected his scattered troops, and marched against the Queen. Boadicea, on her side, was ready for the battle. She called upon the Britons to fight like men, to rid their country of its enemies, and to avenge the cruelty which had been done to herself. She stood in the midst of the army, and declared that she would rather kill herself than allow herself to be taken prisoner by the Romans. The battle began. The army of the Britons was far larger than that of the Romans, but the Roman soldiers had long been taught how to fight together, and to obey the orders that were given them. It was not long before the battle was over. The Britons were quite unable to resist the Romans. No less than eighty thousand of them were killed. Boadicea herself was true to her promise. Rather than be taken prisoner by the Romans, she took poison, and thus ended her own life (A.D. 62). With her death ended the hopes of the Britons, and from that time the Romans were masters of the whole country.

Roman Camps and Roman Roads.

*"Thine, Roman, is the pilum :¹
 Roman, the sword is thine,
 The even trench, the bristling mound,
 The legion's ordered line."*

Macaulay : "Prophecy of Cypys."

After the death of Boadicea, the Romans soon became masters of nearly all that part of Britain which we now call *England*. At first they had to fight many battles, but after a time the Britons submitted to the Romans and agreed to obey their laws. For nearly four hundred years the Romans stopped in this country, and in our own day we can still find many marks of the things they did while they were here.

It would indeed be strange if, after they had been so long in Britain, the Romans had not left something by which we might remember them. They were a very wonderful people, and have set an example

¹ *Pilum*, a short, broad-headed heavy spear borne by the Roman soldiers.

in many things to all the nations who have come after them. The Roman soldiers were the wonder of the world. During time of peace they were always practising what they would have to do in time of war. They could fight well, and they could march well. Nor was this all; they knew how to protect themselves against an enemy as well as they knew how to attack an enemy when they wished.

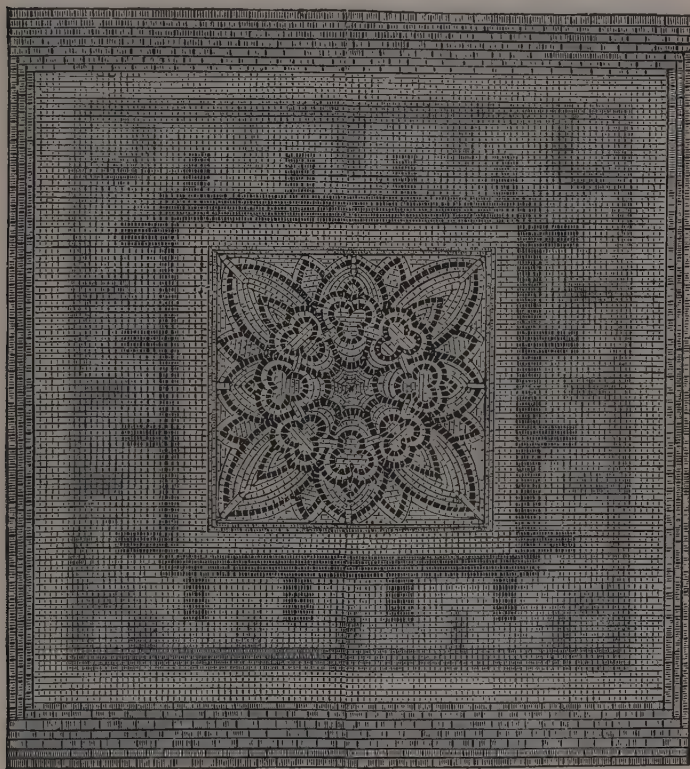
Whenever the Roman soldiers came to the end of a day's march, in whatever part of the world they were, they did the same thing.



THE ROMAN GATEWAY AT LINCOLN.

They built a wall of earth, and made a ditch round their camp, and, as all the soldiers knew how to work, and all worked together, the ditch was dug, and the wall was built, before the soldiers lay down to sleep. Sometimes they built much larger camps than those which were wanted for one night only. These camps had deep ditches and high walls, and they were usually placed on the top of a hill. In many parts of England these Roman camps may still be seen; and not only are the camps themselves still to be found in England, but the very names by which the Romans called them are used by Englishmen every day. The Latin word for camp is "*castra*"; and though we have not got exactly the word "*castra*" in English, we have something like it. We have

all heard of **Chester**, the capital of Cheshire, which stands on the river Dee. The word "Chester" is really the same as "*castra*," and Chester got its name because in the time of the Romans there was a camp or strong place full of soldiers there.



A ROMAN PAVEMENT.

But Chester is not the only place where we find a Roman name. We have *Chi-chester*, *Ro-chester*, *Man-chester*, and many others; and we have also the word *castra* written *caster*, in such places as *Lan-caster*, *Don-caster*, *Tad-caster*. The names of all these places tell us quite plainly that the Roman soldiers once upon a time built their wall

and dug their ditch there in the days that came after the landing of Julius Cæsar.

The Romans, too, were great *builders*; they knew how to erect large buildings of stone and specially of brick. Most of the buildings which they built in Britain have fallen into ruin, but parts of them have been found in many places; and enough is left to show how beautiful the buildings must have been when they were new. The

floors of the houses were paved with tiles in artistic patterns; there were carved pillars inside and outside the houses. There were baths supplied with hot water, and there were many comforts which we sometimes think were not known before our own time. In some places beautiful statues have been dug up, and many thousands of gold and silver and copper coins have been found which have stamped on them the heads of the Roman Emperors, and Latin words which tell us something about the coins.

But though the Romans were famous as builders of houses, they were still more famous as *makers of roads*. The Romans were the first people to make great roads from one end of England to the other. The roads were paved with stone, and they ran in a



THE SHORTEST DISTANCE BETWEEN TWO POINTS IS A STRAIGHT LINE.

straight line up hill and down dale from one town to another. Nowadays it would not be considered wise to take the roads straight up the hills; it is more usual to go round a hill rather than to go up it. But the Romans were quite right to do as they did in their time. If we want to go from one place to another, the shortest distance between the two places is always a straight line. In the picture on this page are two points, A and B, and there is a straight line joining them. We may try as long as we like, but we cannot find a shorter way from A to B than the straight line.

The reason why we do not make our roads go in a straight line now is that we use a great many carriages and carts, and it is very



THE OLD ROMAN ROAD ACROSS SALISBURY PLAIN.

hard for a horse to pull a carriage or a cart up-hill. But when the Romans were in Britain carriages and carts were scarcely used at all, and those who went on long journeys travelled either on foot or on horseback; their luggage was taken from place to place on the backs of horses or mules. The hills, therefore, did not matter very much, and a straight road enabled the Roman soldiers to get from place to place very quickly. There are many places in England where the roads still follow exactly the same line as the old Roman roads.

Sometimes we come to a stretch of road which goes on quite straight for several miles; we may generally be sure that we are on the line of a road which has never changed for eighteen hundred years, and which was first planned by one of the Roman officers under the command of **Vespasian** or **Severus**, or **Titus**, or some other Roman general. The best known Roman roads in England are called "**The Watling Street**," which goes from London to Chester; "**The Fosse Way**," which goes from Bath to Lincoln; "**The Ermine Street**," which goes from London to Lincoln and on to York; and "**The Seaside Road**,"¹ which runs all along the sea-coast of Wales down into Pembrokeshire.

Besides their buildings and their roads, the Romans have also left us a very wonderful mark of their work on the border between England and Scotland. After the Romans had made peace in that part of Britain which is now called England, and had begun to rule quietly there, they found that they were often troubled by enemies who came down from the country which we now call Scotland; these enemies were known as the "**Picts**."

The Romans fought and beat the Picts many times, but they found them so troublesome that at last they built a great wall right across the country to keep them out. The Roman Emperor **Hadrian** ordered the wall to be built (A.D. 121), and after Hadrian's death another Roman Emperor, named **Severus**, built a second wall. This wall is called "**The Wall of Severus**," and many parts of both are still to be seen in our own day. So that there are many things still left in our country to remind us that the Romans once ruled over it.

¹ Via Maritima.

Roman Christianity—Departure of the Romans.

*"And departing leave behind us
Footprints on the sands of time."*

Longfellow: "Psalm of Life."

There is one other thing which the Romans gave to this country, and which would have been the most important of all their gifts had it lasted. This great gift was **Christianity**, which was first introduced into England during the time of the Roman occupation. After many struggles and much suffering the Christians had obtained permission to carry on their worship at Rome. Gradually their teaching spread until, in the year 312, Constantine the Great, the first Christian Emperor, ascended the throne.

In the year 306 Christianity had been already introduced into England under the rule of **Constantine**, whose British mother, **Helena of York**, became known in after years by the name of **St. Helena**. But though Constantine was a Christian, he was unable to protect those of his own religion from the fierce persecution of the Emperor **Diocletian**. Many of the British Christians, it is said, were put to death for refusing to give up their religion, and the name of **Alban** has been handed down to us as that of the first martyr in the British Church. His name is still preserved by the famous Cathedral of **St. Albans**, in Hertfordshire. The persecution, however, did not prevent the spread of Christianity. Bishops were created, and churches were built. Of these churches traces have been found in our own day, but for the most part they were destroyed in the terrible years that followed the departure of the Romans from Britain. Roman Christianity was indeed swept away, and Britain once more became a pagan land.

The Romans stopped in Britain for nearly four hundred years, and during the greater part of that time there was peace and quiet in the country. So long as the Roman soldiers were here, there was little fear of any fresh enemy coming and taking the country. But at length there came news from Rome that a formidable enemy was marching against Italy, and that the Emperor was afraid that Rome itself would be taken. At such a time every Roman soldier was needed to defend Italy and Rome; and orders were therefore sent that the armies which were in Britain should return to Italy.

This was sad news for the Britons, for by this time they had come to look upon the Romans more as friends than as foes, and they feared to lose the Roman soldiers who had so long protected them from every

enemy. Besides, the Romans had built towns in Britain; many of them were married to British wives, and they had begun to teach the Britons the arts which they had brought with them from Italy.

For all these reasons, the Britons were naturally grieved when the order came for the Roman legions to sail across the Straits of Dover and to leave the white cliffs of Britain behind them. But a soldier must do what he is ordered, and the Romans were too good soldiers to disobey the orders which they received from Rome. The legions marched down to the sea-coast, got into their ships, and sailed away across the sea on their road home to Italy.

What happened to the legions when they got to Rome, and how the great city of Rome, which had conquered so many countries, was at last itself conquered, can be read in the history of Rome. But we are reading the history of England, and we must now bid farewell to the Roman soldiers as we lose sight of the sails of their ships crossing the Channel between England and France.



CHAPTER II.

THE COMING OF THE SAXONS.

436—449.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED DURING THE PERIOD
DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

Attila, King of the Huns, b. 406, d. 453. | **Hengist**, Chief of the Saxons, d. 488.

PRINCIPAL EVENT DURING THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS
CHAPTER.

449. Invasion of Britain by Hengist and Horsa.

The Gathering of the Storm.

*"Dark and many-folded clouds foretell
The coming on of storm."*—Longfellow.

Now that we have seen the last of the Roman soldiers sailing back to their own country, we must return once more to the story of

Britain and of the Britons now left behind without the protection of the Roman sword. For nearly four hundred years the Britons had been ruled over by a people stronger than themselves, and, though they had doubtless gained much from their masters, the very fact that they had not had to depend upon their own valour for their own safety had made them less fit to resist an enemy than on the day when they stood on the shore at Deal, ready to face the legions of Julius Cæsar.

A people which has ceased to rely upon itself for its own defence must always be in danger. The Britons had learnt to rely upon the Romans to fight their battles for them, but now they would have to fight their own battles themselves. It was not long before their strength was put to the test by an enemy more terrible than any they had yet had to encounter.

It sometimes happens that before the beginning of a great storm, when the sky has already become overclouded and the air has become still and hushed, a few big drops of rain come splashing down by themselves, and seem to tell us of the downpour which will so soon drench the earth. Something like this happened in Britain in the years which passed just before the Romans sailed away.

From time to time there reached the shores of Britain ships filled with fierce soldiers from a land across the seas; these men were tall, strong, fair-haired, armed with swords and axes, and talking a language quite different from that of either the Britons or the Romans. Wherever they landed they brought fear and alarm with them. They robbed the people and killed those who resisted them; and, after they had taken what plunder they could get, they launched their ships and sailed away again to the land from which they came.

But so long as the well-drilled Roman soldiers remained, these war-like strangers did not do more than visit the coasts of Britain and sail away again. The Roman armies were always ready to meet them and to protect the Britons. But these short visits were like the raindrops, they foretold the terrible storm which was soon to break over Britain.



The Sea Rovers.

*"Thirty men they each commanded,
Iron-sinewed, horny-handed,
Shoulders broad, and chest expanded,
Tugging at the oar.
These, and many more like these,
With King Olaf sailed the seas,
Till the waters vast
Filled them with a vague devotion,
With the freedom and the motion,
With the roll and roar of ocean,
And the sounding blast."*

Longfellow: "The Saga of King Olaf."

And now it is time to ask who these new-comers were, and from what land they had sailed in their ships.

The country from which these people came is now a portion of what we call Germany. It touches the shores of the Baltic Sea, and of the German Ocean, and it comes down close to that part which we now call Holland. The people who came from these countries belonged to three tribes or nations. These tribes or nations were called the **Saxons**, the **Angles**, and the **Jutes**.

We cannot tell exactly what it was that made the Saxons, the Angles, and the Jutes leave their own country and sail across the sea to Britain. Perhaps it was that they thought their own country was a poor one, and they wished to find some more fertile land in which to live. It is very likely that they had such a thought, for even now the north of Germany and the south of Denmark, which are the countries in which the Jutes and the Angles lived, are barren and sandy, covered in many places with forests of fir-trees, and unfit to grow wheat upon.

There were other reasons, too, which made the Jutes, the Angles, and the Saxons wish to cross the sea. There were other nations behind them who kept attacking them and driving them forward down to the sea; and when they got there, they were glad to seek for a new country in which no one would disturb them.

And, last of all, there was, no doubt, another reason which made the Jutes, the Angles, and the Saxons leave their homes. They had just

the same love of adventure which many English people have nowadays. They loved to travel, and to find new lands; and if, when they came to a new land, they had to fight for it, they did not object. Indeed, they liked fighting quite as well as being at peace—perhaps better; and in this matter, too, they were not unlike some Englishmen in our own day, who like adventures all the better if there be danger in them.

No sooner had the last of the Roman soldiers left the shores of Britain, and the strong power of the Romans been taken away, than the storm which had been so long hanging over England began to break. The Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes came over the sea in their ships, not as before, a few at a time, but in great numbers. They did not, as before, land to plunder and sail away again, but they landed upon our shores and stopped there, with no thought of going back to their own country. All along the south coast of England their ships were to be seen. Everywhere the Britons resisted, but everywhere, in the long run, the result was the same. The new-comers were victorious, and step by step they pushed the Britons further back from the coast.

The Ford of the River Medway.

"History repeats itself."

Among the earliest of the invaders were two great Saxon chiefs named **Hengist** and **Horsa**, who are said to have landed at **Ebbsfleet**, in Kent, in the year 449. For a time they settled in the Isle of Thanet, but picking a quarrel with the Britons, they marched with their armies upon London. The story runs that a great battle took place upon the River Medway, in the year 455, at a place called **Aylesford**, and that in this battle Horsa was killed. It is not certain whether the story of the death of Horsa be more than a legend, but it seems clear that at or about the time named a great battle did take place between the Saxons and the Britons, in which the Britons tried to prevent the Saxons crossing the **Medway** and getting to London, and that in this battle the Britons were defeated.

It is interesting to remember that, over and over again, battles have been fought upon the River Medway for just the same reason as this battle between the Saxons and the Britons. If we look at the map, we shall see that the part of England which is closest to the

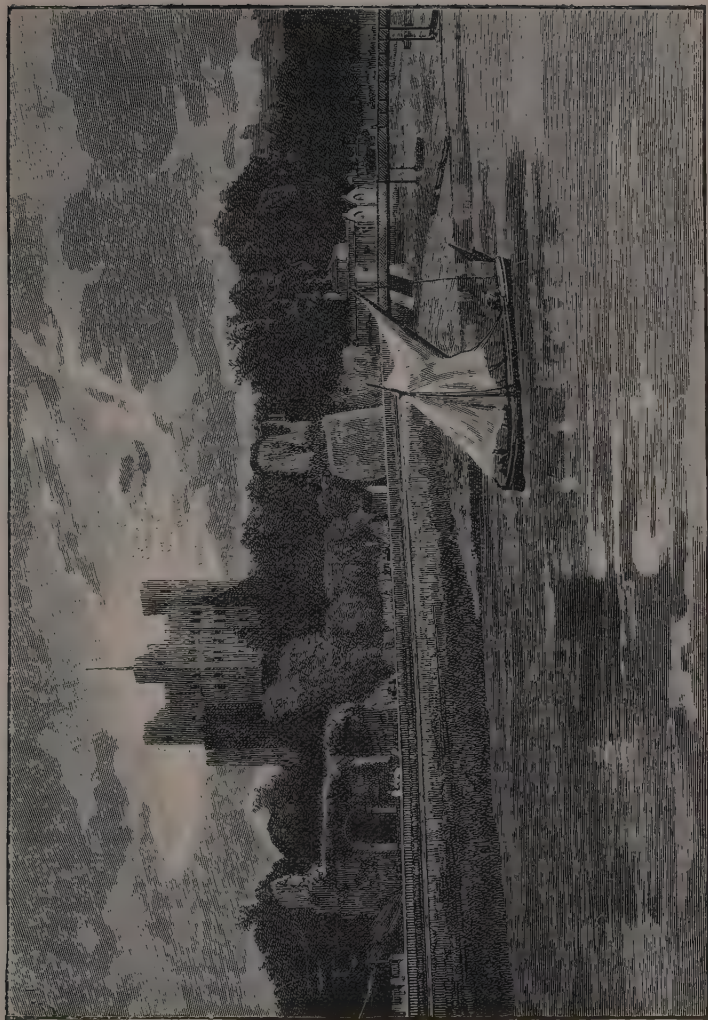
continent of Europe is the county of Kent, and that anyone who lands in the county of Kent, and wants to get to London, will have to cross the River Medway. He will not try to cross where it is very broad, but he will be forced to go up as far as **Chatham**, where the stream is narrow, and where there is now a bridge over it. The easiest and the shortest way from the coast of Kent to London, is across the Medway at Chatham; and it is for this reason that, all through English history, those who wanted to defend London against an enemy, have made a great fortress at Chatham.

If we go to Chatham now, we can still see what is left of the fortresses which our forefathers built at different times. The *Romans*, who were very great soldiers, always knew which was the best place for a fortress, and they were the first to make a great "camp" close to Chatham. The towns of **Rochester** and **Chatham** touch each other. Now "*chester*," as we have already learnt, is really the Latin word for a "*camp*," and we know, therefore, from the name that there was a Roman camp at *Rochester*.

After the Romans had gone, the **Britons** in their turn made a strong fortress at Chatham, and when the Saxons came this fortress prevented them crossing the river at this place. They were forced to come up the bank of the river till they reached Aylesford. Then the **Saxons** built a strong fortress at Chatham, and after them the **Normans**, of whom we shall read later on, built a great stone castle, of which there is a picture on the next page, and which, though it is in ruins, can be seen at the present day. After gunpowder was invented, the Norman castle was not strong enough to defend the crossing of the Medway, and another fortress, built of earth and brick, was made in its place. The greater part of these earth and brick walls still remain, and we can see them any day if we go to Chatham. And now, quite lately, a new fortress has been built all round Chatham, to prevent an enemy crossing the Medway, and to protect the ships of war which lie at Chatham.

And so we see that though times have changed, and though many years have gone by, the reason which made the Britons defend the Medway in the time of Hengist and Horsa, more than fourteen hundred years ago, is the reason which makes us defend it with a great fortress in the days in which we live.





ROCHESTER CASTLE AND THE MEDWAY.
(*Photo by J. Valentine & Sons, Dundee.*)

CHAPTER III.

THE SAXON CONQUEST.

449—597.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED DURING THE PERIOD
DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

Attila, King of the Huns, d. 453.
Clovis, King of the Franks, b. 465, d. 511.
Hengist, Chief of the Saxons, d. 488.
Horsa, the companion of Hengist, killed at Aylesford, 449.
Justinian, the great Roman law-maker, b. 483, d. 565.
Æthelbert, King of Kent, b. 552.
Bertha, daughter of Charibert, King of Paris, wife of Æthelbert.
Ida, King of Bernicia, 547.

St. Patrick, d. 491.
Columba, the great Irish preacher, b. 521, d. 597.
Columban, the great Irish Missionary, b. about 543.
Gregory I., called "The Great," Pope.
The following are supposed to have lived in the sixth century :—
King Arthur.
Gildas, the historian of King Arthur.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS WHICH TOOK PLACE DURING THE
PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

449 Hengist and Horsa land in Kent.
 452. Attila invades Italy.
 457. The Kingdom of Kent founded.
 477. Landing of the South Saxons.
 486. Clovis, King of the Franks, defeats the Romans at the battle of Soissons.
 495. Landing of the West Saxons.

520. Victory of the Britons at Badon Hill.
 547. Ida founds the Kingdom of Bernicia.
 561. Æthelbert becomes King of Kent.
 565. St. Columba commences his mission in Scotland.
 595. St. Columban starts upon a mission to France.

The Breaking of the Storm; or, Britons and Saxons.

*"Cold is Cadwallo's tongue,
 That hush'd the stormy main :
 Brave Urien sleeps upon his craggy bed :
 Mountains, ye mourn in vain
 Modred, whose magic song
 Made huge Plinlimmon bow his cloud-topt head."*

Gray : "The Bard."

FROM the time of the landing of Hengist and Horsa the history of England ceases to be an account of either the Britons or the Romans, and is occupied with the spread and final settlement of the great flood of German invaders which now began to pour into the country. For two hundred years the invasion continued, one wave following another. At the end of that time we find the various tribes of invaders firmly established in England; we find them divided into many separate

kingdoms under various leaders. The Britons have been driven out and are no longer to be feared, and the new-comers have begun to quarrel fiercely among themselves.

Nearly four centuries pass, during which first one Saxon kingdom, and then another, becomes the most powerful, and defeats its rivals. At last, in the year 827, Egbert, King of the West Saxons, becomes the first king of all England. The chief work of the king of the united country is to defend it against the attack of fresh invaders—the fierce Danes, who for a time seem likely to treat the Saxons as the Saxons treated the Britons. And lastly, Saxons and Danes together are forced to give battle to yet another invader, and are defeated by the Normans at the battle of Hastings in the year 1066.

The story of the events which have just been referred to must be told at greater length; but it is well to look forward a little at this point in our history, in order that we may understand how great a period of time elapsed before the first landing of the Jutes in 449, and the conquest of England by the Normans in 1066.

In this book, as in every other history of England, great or small, far more space is given up to the events which took place after the year 1066, than to those which took place before that date; and yet, if we look at the scroll which is unfolded at page 104, we shall see that the portion of our history which is so fully described occupied far less time than that of which so scanty an account is given. From the landing of Julius Cæsar to the time of the Norman Conquest is *more than eleven hundred years*; while the period which elapsed between the landing of Hengist and Horsa and the coming of the Normans in 1066, which is described in a few short chapters in this book, was no less than *six centuries*.

It is easy to understand why our history should contain much shorter descriptions of early times than of late times. The historian can only write of things which he has learnt through books and records. In our own day everything which takes place is written down, and the great difficulty of the historian is to know what things are important enough to be told by him; but in the early Saxon days there was little writing, and in those times of fierce wars even the few written documents which did exist had little chance of escaping destruction.

It is important to remember these things, because we are sometimes liable to forget that the life of a people goes on just the same in days of which history gives us little or no account, as in days when every event is written down and recorded. Although we know less about the six hundred years which passed between the landing of Hengist and Horsa and the landing of the Normans, than we do of the eight

hundred years which followed the last-named event, we must not suppose that they were, on that account, less important, or had less effect in making our country and our people what they are, than the last eight centuries of which history tells us so much.

The two hundred years of our history which follow the landing of Hengist are occupied with the invasion of our islands by the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes. Not in one year, nor, indeed, in many years, was the invasion accomplished. Fierce battles were fought, in some of which, if the old British legends sung by the Bards can be believed, the Britons won the victory. Of one great battle, of which the name has come down to us, the battle of **Badon Hill**,¹ the legend seems undoubtedly true.

But though victory sometimes cheered the Britons, the end was always the same. Checked for a moment, the new-comers waited until fresh ships could come over the sea bringing more of their friends to help them.

The fight between the Saxons and the Britons was very different from that which had taken place five hundred years before between the Briton and the Romans. The Roman armies had beaten the people of Britain and made them obey the laws of Rome. But the Britons, who remained in their land, had learnt to live peaceably and quietly under the Romans. Many of the Romans married British wives, and the Romans taught the Britons many arts and accomplishments which the Britons were quite ready to learn. But it was quite different when the Saxons came. They did not spare their enemies; they drove all before them, and those who did not fly they put to death. They took the lands of the Britons for themselves, and drove from them all those who had formerly lived on them. And so it happened that, at the end of the long fight between the Saxons and the Britons, nearly the whole of England was inhabited only by the Angles, the Jutes, and the Saxons; and the Britons who had been left alive were shut up in a small part of this island.

If we look at the map on the opposite page, we shall see a broad line which runs down one side. This line runs from **Carlisle** to **Chester**, from Chester to **Cardiff**, and from Cardiff to **Plymouth**. On the left hand—that is to say, on the *West* side of this line—we shall see marked **Cornwall**, **Wales**, and **Strathclyde**. We know Cornwall and Wales nowadays, but we no longer know anything about *Strathclyde*. Strathclyde is really that part of England and Scotland in which the counties of Cumberland, Westmorland, Renfrew, Lanark, Ayr, Dumfries, Kirkcudbright, and Wigtown now are. It was into these three parts of our

¹ Fought probably in the neighbourhood of Bath, or some think at Badbury, in Dorsetshire.

island that the unfortunate Britons were pushed by the Saxons, and it is easy to see how this came about.

The Saxons, the Jutes, and the Angles came over from the North of Europe, and landed on the *East* side of England. As they pushed the Britons before them, it was only natural that they should at last push



MAP OF ENGLAND SHOWING THE DIVISION BETWEEN THE SAXONS
AND THE BRITONS.

them up against the farthest edge of the island; and thus it was that the Britons came to be found in **Wales**, **Cornwall**, and **Strathclyde** only. Many of those who live now in these parts of the kingdom are descended from the ancient Britons; and the beautiful and interesting language of Wales is really that of our British forefathers. In **Cornwall** this language is no longer spoken; but if we go across the Channel to France; we shall find that in the province of **Drittany**, the province

whose very name reminds us of Britain, a language is still spoken which is almost the same as that which is spoken by many Welshmen to-day in the counties of Merioneth and Carnarvon. Although the greater part of England is now inhabited by men and women of Saxon race, and who naturally speak English, it must not be forgotten that the ancient British race still is to be found in Wales. To those who only know English, many of the Welsh names appear strange, difficult to pronounce, and impossible to understand; but that is only because Englishmen do not, as a rule, know the meaning of the Welsh names. When we find such names as *Wells*, *Bath*, *Red-ditch*, *Cold-stream*, and so on, we think them natural enough, because they are made up of simple words with which we are familiar. But when we see such names as *Llwnypia*, *Llwyn Helig*, and *Pontrhydvendigred*, we think them strange, forgetting that to those who know the language to which they belong they are just as simple, and have as much meaning, as our own English names, and that "Magpies' Grove," "Willow Grove," and the "Bridge of the Blessed Ford" tell their own stories quite plainly to those who still speak the language of the Britons.

The defeat and expulsion of the Britons meant also the defeat and expulsion of Christianity from all that part of England which the heathen invaders made their own. The churches which had been built in Roman times were destroyed; the priests were put to death, or barely escaped with their lives to the mountains of Wales. Once more the land was inhabited by a heathen people worshipping idols.

But though the worship of Christ was for the time almost entirely banished from England, there still remained in the western part of our island a small remnant of the British population, who did, undoubtedly, preserve their faith and maintain their churches through all the dark years of the early Saxon invasions. In Wales Christianity never altogether died out; and though it does not appear that the Welsh Christians ever attempted to teach their religion to the Saxons, they rendered a great service to England in another way. From the Welsh coasts Christian teachers found their way over to Ireland, and there preached and taught with great success. We shall see how, in later days, Irish teachers came back to England, and how they helped to convert the Saxons, whose ancestors had destroyed the Church of the Britons and had driven the British Christians across the Irish Channel.

Names New and Old.

— — —
 “ *The waters murmur of their name ;
 The woods are peopled with their fame ;
 The silent pillar, lone and gray.*

* * * * *

*Their memory sparkles o'er the fountain ;
 The meanest rill, the mightiest river,
 Rolls mingling with their fame for ever.*—Byron.

And now we must return to the history of the invaders who had succeeded in winning for themselves the possession of our country. We know that, for the most part, they were made up of three great tribes or nations—the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles. Let us see whether we know anything about them nowadays. We certainly do not know the name *Jutes* in England ; but we have only to cross the North Sea to Denmark, the land from which the Jutes came, and we shall find there the province of *Jutland*, or the land of the Jutes ; so the name of the Jutes is not yet forgotten. Do we know the name of the *Saxons* in England ? We do not, but of the Saxons who live in the kingdom of *Saxony*, in the German Empire, we all know something ; yet the name of Saxon is not altogether unfamiliar to us in England itself. The Highland Scots still call the English-speaking Lowlanders “ *Sassenach*,” or *Saxon*, and there are few who have not heard the English people themselves called “ *Anglo-Saxons*.” The term describes the people descended from the Angles and the Saxons together ; and thus, though we have no Saxons, so called, in England, we have millions of people who are often described as *Anglo-Saxons*.

And now we come to the last of the great invading peoples, the *Angles*. Do we know anything of the Angles in England at the present day ? We have seen that there is *Jutland*, the land of the Jutes ; that there is *Saxony*, the land of the Saxons—is there also an *Angleland*, the land of the Angles ? Undoubtedly there is. It is true that we do not call that land “ *Angleland*,” but we call it by a name so similar that there is no difficulty in guessing in a moment what that country is. If, instead of *Angleland*, we say **England**, we shall see that the *Angleland* to which the Angles came is our own England in which we live and whose name is

so famous throughout the world. It is to the Angles that we owe the name of our country and the great English language which we speak.

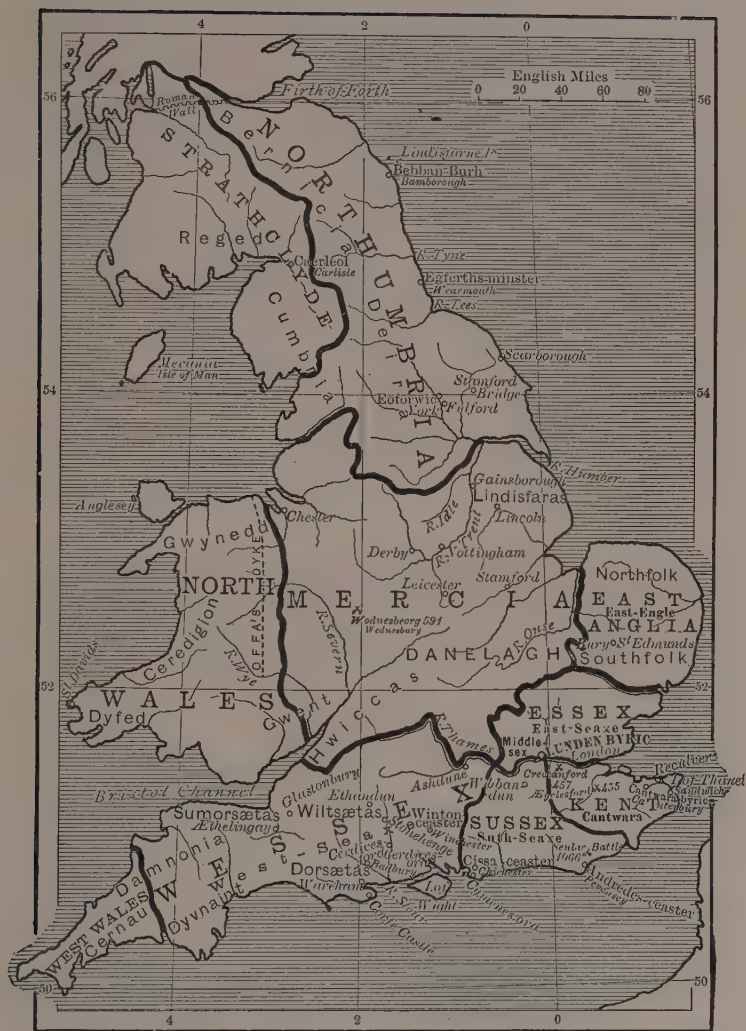
The Saxons who drove out and defeated the Britons were heathens and worshipped idols. Their gods were called **Thor** and **Woden**, **Freia**, and **Tu**, or **Tuesco**; these were their chief gods, and there were others besides. It is many hundred years ago since anybody living in England worshipped Thor, Woden, Freia, or Tuesco. We shall read further on how the Saxons became Christians, and how they gave up their belief in their old gods. But though we who live in England no longer worship the gods of the Saxons, it would not be true to say that we have forgotten all about them; on the contrary, not a day passes on which we do not mention the name of one or other of them. This seems strange at first, but it is quite true. When we say that we will do a thing on *Tuesday*, *Wednesday*, *Thursday* or *Friday*, we are really giving the names of four of the old gods of the Saxons. This is clear when we come to think over the names of the days of the week.

What does *Tuesday* mean? It means **Tuesco's Day**, which we have cut short and made into Tuesday. It is not hard to guess that *Wednesday* is the same thing as **Woden's Day**; **Thor's Day** only needs to be altered by one letter to become *Thursday*; while *Friday*, as we can guess in a moment, is the day of the goddess **Freia**.¹

And so we see that, when we speak of the days of the week, we are really going back into the history of England, and are using words and names which were first brought into England by the Saxons who landed on our shores with Hengist and Horsa. History becomes more real when we find out things like this. They show us that we have really and truly come down from the Saxons who landed in England fourteen hundred years ago; and the words which Hengist and Horsa and their followers used then, we use in our daily speech.

For a long time the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes kept separate from one another. There was not one great Saxon people in England, but a number of small tribes, each tribe under its own king or chief. If we want to know the names of some of these nations, or tribes, we have only got to look at the map. But, it will be said, how can we find these names on the map? There were no atlases in the time of the Saxons; and all these nations and tribes have

¹ *Sunday* is, of course, the day of the **sun**; *Monday*, the day of the **moon**; while *Saturday*, or "*Saeterday*," means **Saturn's** day



THE ENGLISH KINGDOMS.

come to an end long ago, and their names will not be marked in any map of England which we have now.

Let us see. If we go back to the old Saxon histories, we shall find that some of the Angles landed on our shores near where the town of Yarmouth now stands. They divided into two tribes; some of them went north, and some of them stayed where they were, or went south. Those who went north were called the "*North Folk*"; those who stayed in the south were called the "*South Folk*."

Then we find that the Saxons, like the Angles, divided themselves up into several tribes; some went south, some west, some east, and a fourth tribe was to be found in the middle of the other three; and soon people began to talk of the country of the *South Saxons*, the *West Saxons*, the *East Saxons*, and the *Middle Saxons*. Then, too, we read of a tribe which was called the "*Dorsaetas*," and of another which was known as the "*Wiltsaetas*," and there were many other tribes whose names might be given.

Now it will be said that, however long we look upon the map of England, we shall never find marked upon it the country of the "*North Folk*" and the "*South Folk*," of the "*West Saxons*" or the "*East Saxons*," the "*Wiltsaetas*," or the "*Dorsaetas*." It is quite true that we shall not find these very names, but we *shall* find names so very like them that it does not require to be very clever to guess that they are really the same. We have not the country of the "*North Folk*" or the "*South Folk*," but we shall find the counties of "**Norfolk**" and "**Suffolk**" on the map in a moment. We do not talk of the "*Middle Saxons*," the "*East Saxons*," or the "*South Saxons*," but we do talk of "**Middlesex**," "**Essex**," and "**Sussex**." And, in the same way, though we have not got the "*Wiltsaetas*" nor the "*Dorsaetas*," we all know something about the counties of "**Wilts**" and "**Dorset**." We see that, though more than a thousand years have passed since the Saxons first came to live in England, and first gave Saxon names to the places in which they lived, we have never forgotten those names, but still use them every day just as the Saxons did who first gave them to us.

If we look at the map on the previous page, we shall see that it is divided into no less than twelve different districts, of which the greater number are in that part of the British Islands which is now known as England. It will be well to study the map closely, and to learn the names of the different divisions. Our special attention should be given to the divisions which are marked **Kent**, **Northumbria**, **Mercia**, and **Wessex**; for each of these became in turn the most important of the Saxon kingdoms.

On the west side of the island are three districts, **Strathclyde**, **North Wales**, which is the whole of Wales as we now know it, and **West Wales**, which now bears the name of Cornwall. These are the districts which, for a long time after the first coming of the Saxons, remained British. Strathclyde has long ago become Saxon; West Wales has lost its British language, and though it is still distinguished in many ways from the other Saxon and English-speaking counties, it is really as much a part of Saxon England as the neighbouring county of Devon. In North Wales and parts of South Wales alone the British tongue and the British race still hold their own, and the Welsh language of to-day is really the same as that which was spoken by the Britons of the fifth and sixth centuries.



CHAPTER IV.

HOW THE SAXONS BECAME ENGLISH, AND THE ENGLISH BECAME CHRISTIANS.

597—837.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

- | | |
|--|---|
| Æthelbert , King of Kent, b. about 552, d. 616. | Charles Martel , King of the Franks, b. about 689, d. 741. |
| Bertha , daughter of Charibert, King of Paris, wife of Æthelbert. | Pepin , King of the Franks, father of Charlemagne, b. 714, d. 768. |
| Æthelfrith , King of Northumbria, d. 617. | Charlemagne , King of the Franks, b. 742, d. 814. |
| Edwin , King of Northumbria, b. 586, d. 633. | Haroun Al Rashid , Khalif of Bagdad, b. 763, d. 809. |
| Æthelburga , daughter of Æthelbert, King of Kent, wife of Edwin. | Gregory I. , called "The Great," Pope, d. 605. |
| Oswald , King of Northumbria, b. about 605, d. 642. | St. Augustine , first Archbishop of Canterbury, d. 605. |
| Oswy , King of Northumbria, d. 670. | Paulinus , first Archbishop of York, d. 644. |
| Penda , King of Mercia, d. 655. | St. Aidan , d. 651. |
| Wulfhere , King of Mercia, d. 675. | St. Cuthbert , d. 687. |
| Æthelbald , King of Mercia, b. 716, d. 757. | Bede , called "The Venerable Bede," b. 672, d. 735. |
| Offa , King of Mercia, d. 795. | Cædmon , the Saxon poet, died about 680. |
| Ine , King of the West Saxons, d. 728. | Mahomet , the Arabian Prophet, b. 570, d. 632. |
| Egbert , King of the West Saxons, afterwards "Overlord" of England, b. about 775, d. 838. | |

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

597.	St. Augustine lands in Kent.	735.	Death of the Venerable Bede.
626.	Conversion of Northumbria.	752.	Battle of Burford, between Mercia and Wessex.
632.	Death of Mahomet.	787.	First landing of the Danes in England.
636.	Aidan settles in Holy Island.	800.	Egbert becomes King of Wessex.
655.	Battle of Windwid Field. Death of Penda.		Charlemagne, King of the Franks, crowned Emperor of the West.
670.	Oswy, King of Northumbria, dies.	823.	Battle of Ellandune, between the Mercians and the West Saxons.
681.	Wilfrid of York converts the South Saxons.	827.	Mercia and Northumbria subdued by Egbert.
685.	Defeat and death of Egfrith of Northumbria at Nectansmere.		Egbert becomes "Overlord" of England.
687.	Death of Cuthbert.	832.	Danes land in Isle of Sheppey.
732.	Defeat of Saracens by Charles Martel at the battle of Tours.	835.	Egbert defeats Danes at Hengestdown.

Gregory and the Angels.

"Non Angli sed Angeli."

It is no longer to the British parts of the island that we must now turn our attention, but to the new Saxon kingdoms which were growing up in the south and west, and which were to become the foundation of modern England as we know it. The first to be noticed in point of time, though not in point of importance, is the little kingdom of Kent, in the south-eastern corner of the island.

The history of the kingdom of **Kent**, as we know it, is a very short one; but, though short, it has the greatest possible importance for our country. In a previous chapter we read that the Saxons, when they first became masters of England, were heathens, and that they worshipped gods named Woden, Thor, Freia; but the name of these gods is but a memory among us, and for centuries England has been a Christian land. We have now to read how it was that the pagan Saxons learnt the story of Jesus Christ, cast aside their old heathen religions, and became Christians. It is a very beautiful and interesting story, and it is well to tell it as nearly as possible in the very words of those who were living at the time when the change took place, and who wrote down what they saw with their own eyes and heard with their own ears.

The **Romans**, as we know, had introduced Christianity into England, but with the departure of the Romans and the arrival of the Saxons

and the other heathen tribes, the Roman churches were destroyed, the Britons who had become Christians were put to death, or driven to take refuge in Wales or Ireland. England under its new masters once more became a heathen land. We shall learn how Christian teachers from Rome landed a second time in England, and a second time set to work to convert the heathen whom they found there.

In the city of Rome, about the year 580, there lived a great and good man named **Gregory**, a monk.

One day Gregory was walking in the streets of Rome, and, as he walked, he came to the market-place where slaves were sold; for at that time, and for many hundreds of years afterwards, men, women, and children were often sold as slaves both in Rome and other places. Among the many slaves were some little children from that part of England which was then called "**Deira**," but which we now call "**Yorkshire**." They were fair-haired children, their faces were beautiful, and their skins were whiter than those of the little Roman children who had become browned with the heat of the warm sun of Italy.

When Gregory saw the little English children, he went up and asked from what country they came. He was told that they came from the island of **Britain**. Then he asked whether the people of Britain were heathens, or had become Christians. He was told that they were still heathens. When Gregory heard this, he gave a deep sigh. "*Alas!*" said he, "*what a pity that such beautiful children as these should come from a land where men have not yet learnt about Christ.*" Then he asked what was the name of the nation to which the children belonged. He was told that it was the nation of the *Angles*. "*Rightly are they so called,*" said Gregory, "*for they have the faces of angels.*"

Then Gregory made up his mind that the *Angles* should be taught the story of Christ, and after he became Pope (590), he looked about



"GREGORY THE GREAT."

him to find the best man whom he could send over as a teacher or missionary. The person whom he chose was named **Augustine**, who now is often spoken of as *Saint Augustine*. Augustine lived in Rome, and had never been in England; but when he received the order from Gregory to go, he went at once.

The Story of Augustine.

"My heart is inditing of a good matter: I speak of the things which I have made unto the King."—*Psalm xlv. 1.*

The story of Augustine, and how he came to England, is contained in a book written by an Englishman. The name of this Englishman is **Bede**, a truly good and pious man. He was not alive at the time when Augustine came over to England; he was not born until nearly a hundred years after Gregory had seen the little English children in the market-place in Rome. But Bede may easily have heard the story which he tells from those persons who really saw the things happen about which he wrote. This is the story as it is written by Bede, the Englishman.

At the time when Gregory sent Augustine to England, there was a king in that part of our country which we now call Kent. The name of this king was **Æthelbert** (560), and he had a wife named **Bertha**. Now Bertha came from the land of the *Franks* or, as we say now, from **France**, the land of the French. Æthelbert himself was a heathen, but Bertha was a Christian, and the king, her husband, allowed her to go to church and to keep her own religion.

If we look at the map of Kent, we shall see that in one corner of it there is a part which is called "**The Isle of Thanet**." It is in the Isle of Thanet that the towns of **Margate**, **Ramsgate**, and **Broadstairs** now are. In our own day the Isle of Thanet is a part of the county of Kent, but in the time of King Æthelbert it was really an isle, or an island, for there was a stream of water all round it, which separated it from the west of Kent. This stream, which was called the **Wantsum**, began near where the town of **Sandwich** now is, and ended near the place which is marked on the map as **The Reculvers**. It was possible in the time of Æthelbert to sail all the way from Sandwich to The Reculvers. Now there is no longer any stream there, but there is dry land instead.

It was in the island of Thanet that Augustine landed when he

first came to England, more than thirteen hundred years ago. Before he landed, he sent a messenger to King Æthelbert to ask leave to come into his country. Perhaps the king would not have given him leave if it had not been that his wife Bertha was already a Christian. But Bertha, when she heard that Augustine was coming, was very pleased, and she persuaded the king to receive him kindly.

There is a place in the county of Kent called **Ebbsfleet**. It was here that Augustine, with forty companions, landed from the ship that brought him to England (597). He did not at once go to King Æthelbert, but he sent one of his friends to tell the king that he had brought him a most joyful message, and that he had come to tell him about the true and living God.

When the king got the message, he made up his mind that he would go and hear what Augustine had to tell him. He went to the Isle of Thanet, and sent for Augustine. He sat on a chair in the open air when Augustine came. He would not go inside a house, for he did not understand what this new teacher had come to tell him, and he feared that there might be some plan to do him harm or to kill him; he would, therefore, only let Augustine speak to him out of doors. Then Augustine, and those who were with him, came before the king. As they came they sang and prayed, and then Augustine told the king about the new religion and about the story of Christ.

The king heard him in silence, and when Augustine had finished Æthelbert said, "*Your words and your promises are very fair; but as they are new to us, and as we are not certain what they mean, I cannot agree with them now, nor can I give up the religion of my people . . . but because you have come to my kingdom from so far off, and because I believe that you really mean to say what is right and to do what is good, I will be kind to you, and will take care of you, and will let no one do you harm. If you can make people believe you, I will not prevent you.*"

Then the king told Augustine that he might stay in the city of **Canterbury**, which is in the county of Kent, and not very far off from where Augustine had landed. So Augustine and his followers went to the town of Canterbury, and there they built a church and lived for some time, teaching and preaching to the people.

Soon the people began to find out that the strangers were good men, and that they not only taught what was good, but that they lived good and honest lives. Then many of the people began to believe the words of Augustine, and to become Christians; and before very long Æthelbert himself became a Christian, like his wife Bertha; and in a few years all the English people in the kingdom of Æthelbert became Christians.

This is the story of the coming of Augustine to England, and of his teaching the religion of Christ to the English people. Canterbury was the first place in which a church was set up, and to this day a great cathedral stands in the city of Canterbury upon the place on which Augustine and his companions from Rome first taught the story of Christ thirteen hundred years ago.

King Edwin, and the Conversion of Northumbria.

"It is reported that there was then such perfect peace in Britain, where-soever the dominion of King Edwin extended, that a woman with her newborn babe might walk throughout the island, from sea to sea, without receiving any harm."—*Chronicle of the Venerable Bede.*

We now pass from the history of the little kingdom of Kent to that of a larger and much more important division, namely, the kingdom of **Northumbria**, which stretched from the Humber to the Firth of Forth, and which has left its name in our own northern county of *Northumberland*. In the year 547 a Saxon chief of the name of **Ida** landed on the east coast and established the kingdom of **Bernicia**, which stretched from the Tees to the Firth of Forth. Forty-six years later (593), in the reign of **Æthelfrith**, the kingdom of Bernicia was united with the Saxon kingdom of **Deira**—the modern Yorkshire—under the name of the **Kingdom of Northumbria**. **Æthelfrith**, King of Northumbria, was a heathen, and he was a great warrior. He led his armies against the Britons, who still maintained themselves in the north of Britain; he destroyed their churches and killed their priests.

A story still remains of how he besieged the last army of the Britons in the fortress of Chester (607), and how, in the massacre that followed his victory, two thousand monks, fighting to the last on behalf of their religion, were cut down without mercy. For the first time the Saxons had established their dominion from sea to sea. It seemed as if the cause of Thor and Woden were about to triumph finally over the cause of Christianity.

But only ten years before the capture of Chester, **Æthelbert**, King of Kent, had accepted the teaching of St. Augustine, and ere another twenty years had gone by the teaching of St. Augustine was acknowledged by the successor of **Æthelfrith**, **Edwin**, the great King of Northumbria.

In the year 617 Æthelfrith died, and was succeeded by his brother-in-law, **Edwin**. A tie of marriage now united the kingdoms of Kent and Northumbria. King Edwin married **Æthelburga**, the daughter of Æthelbert, King of Kent. It was Bertha, the wife of King Æthelbert, who persuaded her husband to send for Augustine. In like manner, Æthelburga, who, like Bertha, was a Christian, now persuaded King Edwin to send for a teacher who could tell him about the new religion. The teacher whom Edwin sent for was called **Paulinus**, a friend and follower of Augustine. Paulinus came and preached to the king and his counsellors. Bede, who has given us the account of the coming of Augustine, has also told us the story of how Paulinus came to the court of King Edwin, and how the heathen King of Northumbria accepted the new religion.

At the court of King Edwin there was a certain man called Coifi, who was high in favour with the king, and was the high priest of the country. When the high priest had heard what Paulinus had to tell, he learnt that the gods in whom he had believed were false gods. He went to King Edwin, and said to him, "*O King, I advise you at once to give up your false gods; and I advise you, in order to show that you do not believe in them any longer, to break the idols which stand in the temples, and to burn the temples.*"

Then Edwin said that he would do as he was asked. "*But who,*" said King Edwin, "*is the right person to break the idols and burn the temples?*" Then the high priest said to the king, "*There can be no person more fit to do this thing than I myself.*"

Then Coifi mounted on a horse and fastened on a sword, and took a spear and threw it against one of the temples. This was to show that he no longer believed in the idol; for, up to that time, no one had been allowed to wear a sword or carry a spear when they went near a temple. Then he set fire to the temples and threw down the idols and broke them. And thus it was that Paulinus led Edwin to give up idols and to believe in Christ (626).

For a time the people of Northumbria became Christians; but the greater part of England still remained heathen.



The Conversion of Mercia; or the Story of Aidan and Cuthbert.

"The same year that King Egfrid departed this life (685) he promoted to the bishopric of the Church of Lindisfarne, the holy and venerable Cuthbert, who had for many years led a solitary life in great continence of body and mind, in a very small island called Farne, distant about nine miles from that same Church, in the Ocean."—Chronicle of the Venerable Bede.

Among the parts which had not yet been reached by Christianity was the great central kingdom of **Mercia**, of which it is now time to speak. **Mercia**, the kingdom of the *March*, or Border, had been founded by the Anglian tribes in the sixth century, about the time when Æthelbert was reigning in Kent. The name tells us that when the Mercian kingdoms were first set up, the Britons were still in full possession of the centre of England; for the men of the March were those who lived on the borders of a hostile country. At the date we have now reached, however (626), the Mercians were spreading over the whole of the Midlands, and occupied the country which now comprises the counties of **Lincolnshire**, **Derbyshire**, **Cheshire**, **Warwickshire**, **Herefordshire**, and some other counties. Under a king named **Penda**, the Mercians had now become very powerful, and, free from all alarm on the side of the Britons, they turned upon their kindred in the North, and invaded Northumbria. Edwin of Northumbria, of whose conversion by Paulinus we have just read, was killed in battle (633), and his people, deprived of his example and encouragement, went back again for a time to their old heathen beliefs, which, indeed, many of them had given up only in name, and in obedience to the orders of the king.

Fortunately, Christian teachers of even greater power and influence than Paulinus came to the rescue of Northumbria in these dark times. The names of **Aidan** and **Cuthbert** will always be memorable in the history of Christianity in the North of England. Both of them have received the title of Saint, and many churches to this day preserve the names of *St. Aidan* and of *St. Cuthbert*.

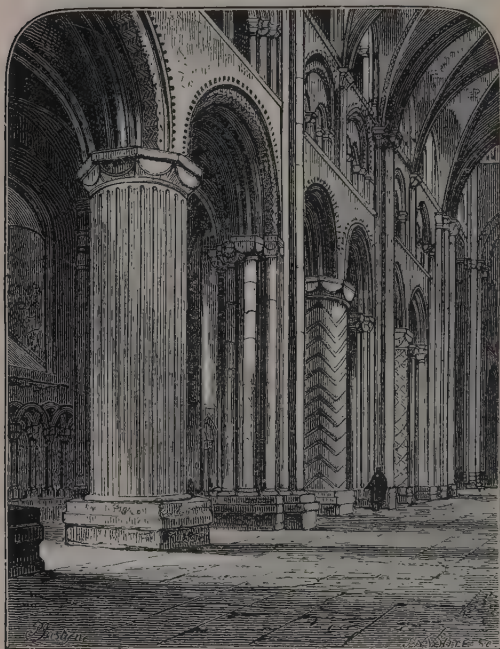
The life of St. Aidan has been written, and it is certain that few people did more than he to convert the people of our country to Christianity, as much, perhaps, as St. Augustine. Earnest and sincere, he moved those with whom he had to do as much by the beauty and



HOLY ISLAND, OFF THE COAST OF NORTHUMBERLAND.
(From a photo by M. Asby, Limited, Tynemouth.)

goodness of his life as by his preaching. We can judge what sort of man he was from the pupils whom he taught.

Among these pupils was **Oswald**, King of Northumbria, who had succeeded Edwin in 635. In his youth, Oswald had been driven out of his country by King Edwin and had sought refuge in Scotland. There he had found his way to the lonely cell of **Columba**, an Irish Christian.



THE INSIDE OF DURHAM CATHEDRAL; SHOWING
THE NORMAN PILLARS.

who, having escaped from persecution in his own country, had found refuge in the little rocky island of **Iona**, off the coast of Argyllshire. **Columba** had gathered round him other missionaries like himself, and it is clear that Oswald never forgot what he saw and learnt during his visit to **Iona**.

After he became king, he sent to **Columba** and begged him to choose one of his monks to come and teach the people of Northumbria and to bring them back, if possible, to the Christian religion which they had forsaken.

Aidan was chosen for the task. He came southward, and following the example of his master **Columba**, settled on the little island of **Lindisfarne**, or **Holy Isle**, just off the Northumberland coast. Thence he passed through Northumbria teaching and preaching, and under his influence both Northumbria and its king learnt to understand and believe in his message.

Oswald himself became a pupil of **Aidan**, and an active helper in

his work. Coming from a far-off country, the preacher could only speak the language of the Scots, among whom he had lived. But Oswald, too, had been among the Scots and knew their language. He offered his services to Aidan as interpreter, and as Aidan preached, the King translated into a language which the people could understand. "It was delightful," says Bede, who wrote the life of Aidan, "to see the King helping the preacher."

Under the wise guidance of the new teachers Oswald's reign prospered, and Northumbria recovered from the defeat and death of Edwin. But as long as Penda, the fierce heathen King of Mercia, lived, there was no real safety for Northumbria, nor, indeed, for any Christian kingdom in England.

East Anglia (now the counties of **Norfolk** and **Suffolk**) had become Christian. Penda marched into the land of the East Angles and slew their king. Oswald hastened to the rescue, but in his turn was defeated and killed in the battle which took place between the Northumbrians and the Mercians (642). Once more Northumbria was overrun by the Mercians, but once again under its new king, **Oswy**, it regained strength, till at last fortune turned in favour of the Christian army, and the Mercians were defeated, with terrible loss, in the battle of Winwid Field, near Leeds (655). Penda himself fell in the battle. Enough is known about him to show that he was really a great man, and his name still lives in more than one English place-name.

The work of Aidan was continued by **Cuthbert**, who also lived at Lindisfarne, or Holy Isle. As a teacher and preacher, his fame was even greater than that of Aidan, and the stories of his goodness and of the wonderful things which he did have come down to us from the time in which he lived. He died in the year 687, and was buried at **Dunelm** (now called **Durham**), where the stately cathedral church of St. Cuthbert still commemorates the life and work of the great Northumbrian teacher.



Offa, King of Mercia, and the Rise of the West Saxons.

"I, Offa, King of the Mercians, have sealed with the seal of the Cross, this my aforesaid gift."—From a Charter of grant of land by King Offa to the Church of St. Andrew, Rochester.

We must now leave Northumbria, and return for a while to the Midland kingdom. Northumbria never recovered its full power after the death of King Oswy (670), and as its influence declined, that of Mercia grew. **Wulfhere**, a Christian, a son of Penda, became king. Under his leadership the Northumbrians were defeated, and Mercia was freed from the authority of the Northumbrian king who had claimed the right to interfere with its government ever since the death of Penda. Wulfhere extended his kingdom to the south and west, and Mercia took without dispute the first place among the English kingdoms. While the fortunes of Mercia grew brighter, those of Northumbria faded. In the year 685, **Egfrith**, King of Northumbria, marched against his Northern enemies, the **Picts** in Scotland, but in a terrible battle at **Nectansmere**, in what is now the county of Fife, he was slain, and his army destroyed. Thus ended the once-powerful Northumbrian kingdom.

For a hundred and sixty years **Mercia** remained the first among the English kingdoms under its kings, of whom the greatest were **Æthelbald** and **Offa**. Offa, King of the Mercians, has been dead and buried for hundreds of years: but though he has been dead so long, his name is not yet forgotten in England, and this is how it came to be remembered.

When Offa was King of Mercia, he fought a great many battles with the **Welsh**. Sometimes he marched with his army into Wales, and sometimes the Welsh, in their turn, marched into his country. At last Offa made up his mind that the Welsh should come into his country no longer, and, in order to keep them out, he set his people to work to dig a long ditch and to build a wall of earth between his own kingdom of Mercia and Wales.

This long ditch stretched all the way from the River **Dee**, which is in the county of Cheshire, to the River **Wye**, which runs into the mouth of the Severn, in the county of Monmouth.

The great ditch was called "*Offa's Dyke*," or "*Offa's Ditch*." Years went by. Offa himself died and his kingdom disappeared; but

to this day part of the work which he did still remains. There are places where the ditch and the wall of earth can still be seen, and English people living in Shropshire or in Herefordshire at this very day can walk along the bank which Offa, King of the Mercians, built, and which bears his name.

The fame of King Offa was known not only in his own country but on the continent of Europe, and he appears to have been treated as an equal in rank by **Charles**, King of the Franks, who is generally known in history as **Charlemagne**, and who was at that time at the height of his power in his great kingdom, which extended over half of France and half of Germany. But on Offa's death the power of Mercia soon came to an end, for in 823, **Beornwulf** was defeated in battle by a new enemy, **Egbert**, King of the *West Saxons*, who only two or three years later won another victory over the Mercians under **Wiglaf**.

We must look once more upon the map to see where the kingdom of the *West Saxons* lay. It is the *fourth* of the Saxon kingdoms whose fortunes we have had to follow, and its history is of special importance because it is from **Wessex** that there came at last a king who was to unite all the English kingdoms under his rule.

It must not be supposed that the kingdom of Wessex suddenly sprang into existence at the time of King **Wiglaf** of Mercia. **Wessex**, or the kingdom of the *West Saxons*, had, indeed, been founded three hundred and six years before—in the year 519—by a king of the name of **Cerdic**, and several kings had succeeded **Cerdic** during the two hundred and sixty-six years between his death (534) and the days of **Egbert**. Of these West Saxon kings some record still remains to us. The most famous of them was **Ine**, who reigned from 688 to 726, and who drew up a code of laws for the West Saxons of which a copy still exists. He died 728.

It was in the year 800 that **Egbert** became King of Wessex. His



A "NORTHMAN."

life before he became king had been one of misfortune, for he had been exiled from his country, and compelled to take refuge at the court of Offa, King of Mercia. Thence he had been compelled to fly a second time to the Continent, where he put himself under the protection of Charles the Great, King of the Franks. At that time Charles was engaged in conquering the Frankish and German kingdoms, which he at length formed into one great kingdom or empire. Perhaps Egbert was moved by the example of Charlemagne, for no sooner had he come to the throne of Wessex than he set to work to win over or subdue the other kings of England, and to make himself master of the whole country.

He first fought against the kings of **Kent**, **Essex**, and **Sussex**, and joined their kingdoms to his own. He then turned his arms against **Mercia**, which he compelled to submit to him after the Mercians had been defeated at the great battle of Ellandune, in Wiltshire (823). In the west he conquered the district now known as the county of **Devon**, and added it to Wessex. The Britons, or *Welsh*,¹ as the Saxons called them, were driven into **Cornwall** and the river **Tamar** was fixed as their boundary.

There now only remained the kingdom of **Northumbria** outside the dominion of Egbert; but Northumbria was no longer strong enough to fight against so powerful an enemy as the King of Wessex, and the Northumbrians, of their own accord, submitted to Egbert, who thus became the first king or “*Overlord*” of all England (827)

CHAPTER V.

THE NORTHMEN

837—871.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

Æthelwulf, King of Wessex, son of Egbert, d. 858.

Æthelbald, King of Wessex, son of Æthelwulf, d. 860.

Æthelbert, King of Wessex, son of Æthelwulf, d. 8.6

Æthelred, King of Wessex, son of Æthelwulf, d. 871.

Alfred, son of Æthelwulf, b. 849, afterwards King of Wessex.

Swithin (St. Swithin), Bishop of Winchester, d. 861.

Hasting, a Danish chief.

Ruric, a Danish chief, d. 879.

¹ The name *Welsh* means “foreigner.”

PRINCIPAL EVENTS WHICH OCCURRED IN THE PERIOD
DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>841. The Danes under Hasting, land in Normandy.
 849. King Alfred born.
 851. The Danes capture and pillage Canterbury and London.
 Battle at Ockley, Surrey.
 855. Alfred visits Rome.
 858. Death of Æthelwulf.
 860. Death of Æthelbald.
 The Danes attack Winchester:
 861. Death of Swithin, Bishop of Winchester.</p> | <p>861. Ruric, the Dane, lands in Russia, and founds the ancient Royal family of Russia.
 866. Death of Æthelbert.
 867. The Danes take York, and conquer Northumbria.
 868. Æthelred and Alfred make peace with the Danes at Nottingham.
 870. The Danes kill Edmund (St. Edmund), King of East Anglia.
 871. The Danes defeated at Ashdown. Death of Æthelred.</p> |
|--|--|

The Coming of the Danes.

*"When Denmark's raven soar'd on high
 Triumphant through Northumbria's sky*

*And the broad shadow of her wing
 Blacken'd each cataract and spring."*

Scott: "Rokeby," canto iv.

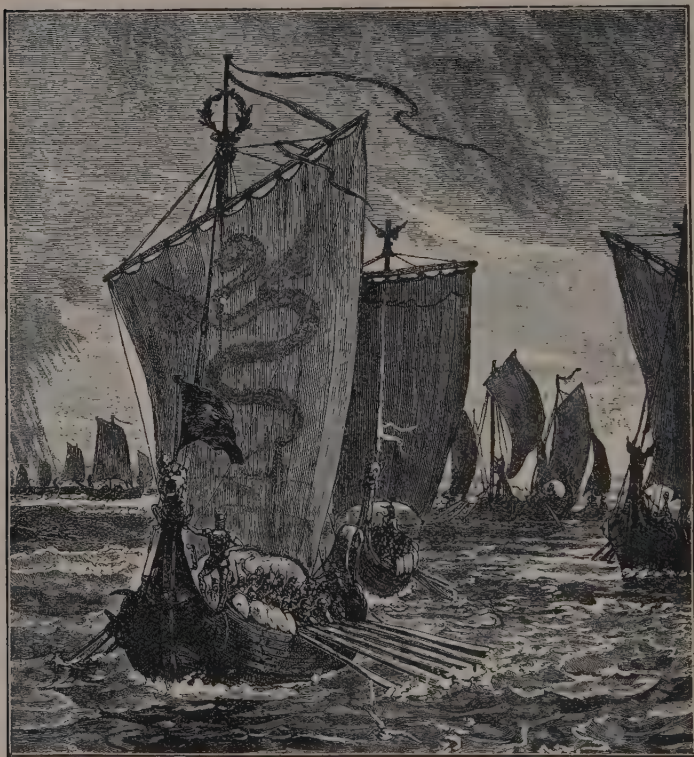
WE have just read above how Egbert, King of Wessex, became master of the other English kingdoms; but the rule of Wessex was not long to remain undisputed, and the Saxons who had so long fought among themselves, were now to be brought face to face with a common enemy, who threatened to treat them as their ancestors three hundred and seventy years before had treated the Britons.

These new enemies were the *Danes*, a people whose name from this time forward becomes very closely connected with the history of England. The peninsula of *Denmark* stands out from the northern coast of Europe; its most northern point is on a level with the city of Aberdeen, and its western shore can be reached in thirty-six hours' steaming from the mouth of the Tyne.

The Danes of our day are a sturdy and industrious people, not unlike Englishmen in appearance, and speaking a Scandinavian language which is not altogether unlike the language of the Eastern Lowlands of Scotland.

It was this land of Denmark that gave its name to the new invaders who appeared in England in the time of King Egbert. But

it was not from Denmark only—nor, indeed, principally—that the Danes came. Many of them came from further north—from the Fjords of the wild Norwegian coast—and hence, in the histories of the time, we constantly find them spoken of as the *Northmen*. The



THE "KEELS" OF THE NORTHMEN.

Northmen, or Danes, were great sailors. The country in which they lived was wild and bare, and it is not wonderful that they longed to sail over the sea to some richer land than their own. They were a cruel but brave people, fierce in war and eager for plunder.

Each year parties of them sailed further and further from home, and it was not long before some of their ships reached the coast of

England (787). They first appeared in Northumbria, in the reign of Æthelred (794), and from that time forward their visits continued during many years.

They soon found that England was a richer and pleasanter country than their own, and their first thought when they landed was to kill the English, to take from them all they possessed, and to sail back again with the plunder they had taken. Ship after ship sailed across the sea, and soon the English began to know too well the vessels of their terrible enemies. When they saw the Danish ships coming they fled from their homes into the woods, or took refuge in some strong town.

Soon the Danes began to act on a new plan. They no longer came only to plunder and to sail away again, but they stopped in England and made their homes there. Their *Long-ships* sailed into all the rivers on the east side of England; and when the Northmen had landed, they built forts to protect themselves, and marched against the English, destroying their towns, killing all who could not escape, and taking cattle and everything of value they could find.

It must have been a terrible sight for the English to see the Danish "Long-ships," or "*Keels*," as they came up into the river-mouth. At the front of each great ship was a tall prow, which was often made into the figure of a dragon or of some other fierce animal. On the mast was spread a broad painted sail, which swelled with the east wind as the ship swept through the water. If the wind blew off the land, the ship was driven forward by the long rows of oars on either side, worked by the strong arms of fifty rowers. On the outside hung the bright shields of the Danes, and in the ship itself could be seen the fierce Northmen armed with their heavy axes and spears, and with their standards in their midst. The standards themselves seemed to tell of the fierce, cruel men who bore them. Sometimes they were in the form of a raven or an eagle, sometimes of a serpent or dragon, sometimes of a bear or wolf. No wonder that the fear of the Danes was great, and that the news of their coming spread terror through the land.

Nor was it only to England that the Danes came. Some of them sailed to the north, round the coasts of Scotland, till they came to Ireland. Others sailed away to the south until they came to France. There they landed and set up a kingdom of their own.

We must not forget about these Northmen who sailed to the south and landed in France, because we shall read about them again further on. When we come to them, we shall find they are called, not *Northmen*, but *Normans*; and when we read the story of the Normans, we must remember who they were and where they came from.

But the Northmen of whom we are now to read are those who came to England, not those who went to France. It was in the time of King Egbert that the Danes or Northmen began to come to the south of England; but it was not till the time of Egbert's son, **Æthelwulf** (837), that they came in great numbers. It was in his day that the Danes sailed up the River Thames and plundered **London** (851). This was a great blow to the English, and they determined to try and get rid of their terrible enemies once for all. King **Æthelwulf** marched against them with a large army, and a fierce battle was fought at a place called **Ockley**, in Surrey. The Danes were beaten, and for a time it seemed as if England would be freed from them.

But, alas! this was not to be. More ships came across the sea; and this time the Danes found friends among the *Welsh*, who were only too glad to find some one to help them against their old enemies the English.

From this time, for more than a hundred years, the history of England is full of stories of battles with the Danes and of accounts of the misery and suffering of the people of England. It seems strange that Danes and English should have been such bitter enemies, for really they belonged almost to the same people. They both came from the northern part of Europe, and the Danes spoke a language not very unlike that which was spoken by the English.

But, by the time of King **Æthelwulf**, the English were very different from what they had been when their forefathers first landed in England. They were Christians, and, moreover, had ceased to be wandering tribes. They had become rich and settled, and had already learnt to make good laws and to live at peace among each other.

But the Northmen who now came over the sea were still heathen. They cared for no laws, they wandered from place to place in search of plunder, and they knew neither pity nor justice. So great was the terror of the Danes among the English, that it became the custom to put into the prayers which were offered up in the churches this prayer: "*From the fury of the Northmen, good Lord deliver us.*"



CHAPTER VI.

THE REIGN OF KING ALFRED.
871-901.FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF
KING ALFRED.**Alfred**, son of Æthelwulf, b. 849, became king 871, d. 901.**Alcswith**, wife of Alfred, m. 868.**Guthrum**, a Danish chief, d. 890.**Hasting**, a Danish chief.**Æthelred**, alderman of Mercia.**Æthelfleda** ("The Lady of the Mercians"), daughter of Alfred, wife of Æthelred.**Charles III.**, "The Fat," King of France, d. 888.**Charles IV.**, "The Simple," King of France.**Asser**, the historian of King Alfred.**Rollo**, a Danish leader, afterwards Duke of Normandy.PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN
THIS CHAPTER.

871. Alfred becomes king of Wessex.

876. Rollo captures Rouen.

879. Peace of Wedmore.

897. Alfred builds a navy.

901. Death of Alfred.

Alfred, the "Truth-Teller."

"In the whole of the kingdom the poor, beside him, had few or no protectors."

"So long as I have lived I have striven to live worthily. I desire to leave the men who come after me a remembrance of me in good works."

Asser: "Life of Alfred."

Now that we know something of this terrible people, we must go back to the story of the English, and learn how a great Englishman arose who saved his country in a time of trouble, and who prevented the Danes from becoming masters of the whole of England.

The name of this great Englishman is **Alfred**.

King Alfred (871) was the youngest son of **Æthelwulf**, King of **Wessex**. He was born in the year **849**, which is over a thousand years ago. When he was young, no one ever thought that he would become king, for his three brothers all had a right to come to the throne before him. But it so happened that though each of his three brothers became king in turn, each of them died a very short time after he had come to the throne. And so, after all, Alfred became King of the West Saxons.

We must remember that Egbert, King of the West Saxons, who was Alfred's grandfather, had made himself king over very nearly the whole of England; but between the time when Egbert was king, and the time when Alfred came to the throne, there had been a great change; for it was during this time that the Danes had begun to come in large numbers into England. They had become so powerful and so numerous, that Alfred, when he came to the throne, instead of being a powerful king like his grandfather Egbert, had for many years to fight hard for his own life, and to protect his own kingdom of Wessex. We shall see how bravely he fought, and how in the end he gained a great victory.



A HARP OF THE NINTH CENTURY.

But before we come to the story of Alfred's success, we must learn something about his early days, and how it was that he overcame the difficulties and dangers by which he and his country were surrounded, and became at last victorious. It is truly said that "the boy is father to the man"; and in order to understand the character of any man or woman, it is necessary to know something of how their character was formed in youth.

Fortunately we know far more about the early years of King Alfred than we do about those of any of the Saxon kings before his time. Although he lived more than a thousand years ago, books were written in his time which tell us truly what

he did, what he said, and what he learnt. Some of these books were written by the hand of Alfred himself, for he was a great scholar in times when scholarship was rare. It seems strange nowadays to think that any grown-up person, especially such a person as a king, should not be able to read and write easily, but in the days of King Alfred very few could read or write; and there have even been kings of England at a much later time who, though they were great soldiers and men of much ability, could not write their own names. But Alfred learnt to read and write when he was quite young, and was always a great lover of books.

Alfred also learnt as he grew up many other useful things. He had a tutor who taught him to read books. This tutor's name was **Swithin**, the Bishop of Winchester. The name of Swithin, or *St. Swithin*, still sounds very familiar in our ears. The 15th day of July is called "*St.*

Swithin's Day," and there is a saying that if it rains on St. Swithin's Day, there will be forty wet days to follow. There are probably few people who talk of St. Swithin nowadays who know that he was a real person, and was the tutor who taught King Alfred when he was a young man.

But Swithin taught his pupil other things which were more useful to him than book-learning. He taught him to be true and just in all his dealings, to love what was right, and to speak the truth. There is one name by which Alfred was called both by his friends and his enemies. It is a name which should not be forgotten, for it was one of the greatest and most honourable names that could be given to a king or to any other man. He was called "*Alfred the Truth-Teller*."

In many other ways besides those which have been mentioned, Alfred fitted himself for the battle of life while he was young. There is a proverb which tells us that "home-keeping youths have ever homely wits," and undoubtedly those who stay at home and never travel will learn little of what is going on in the world, and are sometimes very ignorant. Travel is always good for those who know how to travel wisely, and a knowledge of how other people live, and of what is going on in foreign countries, is useful to anyone, especially to one who has to be a king.

When he was quite young, Alfred travelled on the Continent. He visited France, where he met many learned and wise men, and where he learnt much which was afterwards of value to him. He was skilled in various accomplishments. We have already seen that he loved to read and write, and knew Latin well. He was fond of music, and learnt to play upon the harp. Nor did he forget to learn those things which strengthened his body as well as those which improved, strengthened, and instructed his mind. He practised shooting with the bow, he learnt how to use the sword, how to ride, and how to hunt. In such stormy times of war and danger as those in which Alfred lived, it was, above all, necessary that the king should be brave and active, a warrior able to lead his people in battle. A master of all these accomplishments, Alfred grew up strong, brave, and wise, and in every way fitted to be a king.

Alfred's Defeats and Victories.

"The darkest hour comes before the dawn."

It was fortunate that Alfred had learnt the work of a soldier while he was still young, for it was not long before he had plenty of fighting to

do. Before he reached the age of twenty-two his three elder brothers, **Æthelbald**, **Æthelbert** and **Æthelred**, had died, and Alfred was called to the throne of Wessex. It seemed, indeed, a misfortune for the West Saxons that at the time when a great and growing danger threatened them, their king should be little more than a boy. For indeed the time was one of great peril.

The Danes, who for a while had been beaten back, began to come over in larger numbers than ever. Their *Long-ships* sailed into every river along the east coast of England, and into many harbours on the south coast. They made themselves masters of **Northumbria** and **Mercia**, and Alfred had not been king more than a month when they marched against his own kingdom of **Wessex**. It seemed as if all England would fall into the power of the Danes. Alfred, alone with the people of Wessex, was left to fight against them.

Many battles were fought. Sometimes Alfred was victorious, sometimes the Danes were victorious. But at last the Danes became so numerous that Alfred's soldiers no longer dared to face them, and they either fled or made submission to the Danish chiefs. Alfred, deserted by his army, was forced to take refuge in flight from his fierce enemies.

For a long time he lived with a few of his most faithful followers in the marshes near **Athelney**, in Somerset. At last, in order to escape being taken and killed by the Danes, he was obliged to dress himself up as a peasant, and to serve a shepherd who lived in a little hut among the marshes of Athelney.

It is at this period of Alfred's life that the famous story is told of King Alfred and the cakes. The shepherd's wife little suspected who the forsaken stranger that did the humble work of the homestead really was. One day she bade the king watch a batch of cakes that were being cooked before the fire. He was to be sure not to forget to turn them from time to time, so that they might not become burnt. But Alfred's thoughts were far away. He was shaping a bow, and thinking of the day when he might once more lead his West Saxons into battle. The shepherd's wife returned, and finding her precious cakes burned and spoiled, gave her unhappy servant a sound rating and a beating for his negligence. To such a strait had the king been brought.

It seemed as if all hope of Alfred ever regaining his throne were gone, but better days were in store. While the king was hiding in the shepherd's hut, the Danes advanced into Devonshire, the next county to Somerset. The Devonshire men met them and beat them. When Alfred heard that the Devonshire men had been victorious, he came out of his hiding-place, and calling together his friends, he once more put himself at the head of the people of Wessex.



THE "WHITE HORSE," NEAR UFFINGTON.

Many fierce battles were again fought between the English and the Danes, and with varying fortune. One great battle was fought near **Uffington**, in Berkshire. The English won the day, and when the fight was over, Alfred's soldiers thought they would make some mark which for ever afterwards would remind people of the battle.

The hills near Uffington are made of white chalk, and on top of the chalk there is fine, short green grass. The soldiers drew out upon the grass the figure of a great horse. Then they cut away all the turf up to the edge of the figure of the horse, so that the white chalk underneath showed through. In this way they made a big white picture of a horse, which could be seen upon the hillside from a long way off. It is now a thousand years since Alfred's soldiers first cut the white horse in the turf after their battle with the Danes. But ever since that time the white horse has been taken care of, and the grass has been kept from growing over it, so that it is still white and clear. And now in our own day, as we travel by train from London to Exeter, if we look out of the window between Didcot and Swindon, we can still see the "white horse" high up on the hillside. The valley below is called the "**Vale of White Horse**" up to this very day.

At length, both sides, weary of the strife, agreed to make peace. The Danes on their part promised to leave Alfred in undisturbed possession of his kingdom of Wessex, while the king on his side gave up the greater portion of England north of the Ouse to the new-comers. **Guthrum**, the principal Danish chieftain, was baptised and became a Christian. A Saxon chief or Alderman,¹ named **Æthelred**, who had married Alfred's daughter, whose name was **Æthelfleda**, was made governor of the southern part of Mercia.²

England's First Navy, and the Work and Wisdom of King Alfred.

"This year died Alfred, the son of Æthelwulf, six days before the Mass of All Saints. He was King over the whole English nations, except that part which was under the dominion of the Danes; and he held the kingdom one year and a half less than thirty years."—*"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle."*

But it was a bad plan to trust the Danes; their promises were only made to be broken. Moreover, the fresh invaders who kept coming

¹ Alderman or "Elderman."

² This arrangement was called the "*Peace of Wedmore*."

over the sea cared nothing for the promise which had been made by those of their countrymen who were already in England, and they altogether refused to be bound by them. It was not long, therefore, before war broke out again. The Danish fleet sailed down the Channel and came up the river Exe as far as Exeter. They were there defeated; but the victorious Saxons could profit little by their victory, for the enemy, retiring to his ships, sailed away and was safe.

Alfred was not slow to learn the lesson which was thus taught him. He perceived that as long as the Danes were masters of the sea, there was no hope of ending the war, for the long-ships of the enemy could always move from point to point by sea more rapidly than his own armies could move by land.

Moreover, if the Saxon troops arrived in time to prevent a landing, or to defeat an invading force as they had done at Exeter, they were quite powerless to prevent their enemies from taking to sea again and landing at some other point of the coast to burn and pillage. It was plain to Alfred that, in order to succeed, he must fight the Danes with their own weapons.



AN ANGLO-SAXON SHIP.
(From an old drawing.)

Eleven centuries before, in the long wars between the Romans and the Carthaginians, the Romans, whose armies were invincible on land, found themselves at the mercy of an enemy whom they despised, but whose fleets, nevertheless, commanded the sea. The Romans were no sailors, but they determined that they would have a fleet. Hundreds of galleys were commenced, and while the ships were being built, the crews, seated on benches, practised on land the art of rowing, and the methods of fighting which they were to put into force as soon as they went to sea. Their efforts were rewarded. The Carthaginian fleets were driven from the Roman coasts, the Romans pursued the Carthaginians to their own city, defeated them by sea and by land, and destroyed the city of Carthage itself.

It may be that King Alfred remembered the history of the Roman fleet, for we have seen that he was a Latin scholar; but, be that as it

may, he followed the Roman example. Ships were built, sailors were trained, and the Danes for the first time were beaten on the water. They could no longer disappear without fear of being followed, or move with greater rapidity than the Saxons. For the first time in our history an English fleet was master of the English Channel, and as long as it remained master of the Channel England was safe from an attack. What was true a thousand years ago has been true at all times in our history, and is true at this day. It may be indeed said that Alfred was the first ruler of England who learnt and put into practice the truth that *the safety of England depends upon her fleet*, and that the real protectors of our country are *our sailors*.

Hitherto we have spoken of Alfred's reign as one of war and fighting only. But it would be a great mistake to suppose that Alfred was nothing more than a great soldier. While it was his first duty to protect his people, he never forgot the duties of peace-time. He drew up a code of laws, and, what was even more important, he caused the laws to be plainly written down, so that those who had to obey them might know what they were. He invited to his Court wise and learned men from other countries, from Paris and from Rome, and he used their knowledge for the benefit of his people. To him we owe the beginning of what may be called the first history of England, the famous *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, a work which was commenced at this time, and which, happily, still exists, and is the source from which we learn most of what is known of the events which took place in the later Anglo-Saxon times.

Alfred himself was active in good works. He was the author of various books, he wrote poetry, he translated famous Latin books into English, he began a translation of the Bible, which, however, was never finished. Diligent in his work, he was unwilling to waste the time he found too short for what he had to do. To measure the hours appointed for each task he set himself, he caused a candle to be made to tell him the time in a day when watches and clocks were unknown. The candle, we are told, was made in different colours or bands, dividing it into equal parts, and in every hour, one such part was burnt away, and thus the king noted the passing of the hours. Such are some of the stories which have come down to us of this great king. We know enough of him and his life to be sure that the honour in which he was held by those of his own day was not misplaced, and that the title which was given to him in later days was one which truly described him, and that men had reason to speak of him as "**Alfred the Great.**" Other titles he also bore which, perhaps, tell us even more of his greatness, and of the reasons why he was beloved. We still speak of

him as "Alfred the Great," but his people also spoke of him as "**Alfred England's Comfort**," and "**Alfred the Truth-teller**."

He died at Winchester, the capital city of his kingdom of Wessex, in the year 901, at the age of 52.



CHAPTER VII.

THE ENGLISH KINGS FROM EDWARD "THE ELDER" TO EDWARD "THE MARTYR."

901—979.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

- | | |
|---|---|
| Edward the Elder , son of Alfred, became King of the English 901, d. 925. | Ælfeda , first wife of Edgar, mother of Edward. |
| Athelstan , son of Edward the Elder, became King of the English 925, d. 940. | Ælfrida , second wife of Edgar, mother of Æthelred. |
| Edmund I. , brother of Athelstan, son of Edward the Elder, became King of the English 940, d. 946. | Edward ("The Martyr") son of Edgar, became King 975, murdered, 979. |
| Edred , brother of Edmund, son of Edward the Elder, became King of the English 946, d. 955. | Æthelfleda ("Lady of the Mercians"), daughter of Alfred, wife of Æthelred, of Mercia, 919. |
| Edwy , son of Edmund, became King of the English 955, d. 959. | Charles IV. ("The Simple"), King of France. |
| Elgiva , wife of Edwy. | Rollo , Duke of Normandy (under the title of Robert). |
| Edgar , brother of Edwy, son of Edmund, became King of England 959, d. 975. | Henry I. ("Henry the Fowler"), Emperor of Germany, b. 876, d. 936. |
| | Dunstan , Archbishop of Canterbury, b. 925. |

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 911. Edward defeats the Danes. | 940. Death of Athelstan. |
| Rollo becomes Duke of Normandy, and is baptised at Rouen. | 943. Dunstan made Abbot of Glastonbury. |
| 917. Æthelfleda takes Derby from the Danes. | 946. Murder of Edmund. |
| 925. Death of Edward the Elder. | 955. Death of Edred. |
| Landing of the Danes in Ireland. | 956. Banishment of Dunstan. |
| 926. The Margrave of Brandenburg, afterwards the kingdom of Prussia, founded by "Henry the Fowler." | 959. Death of Edwy. |
| 937. Battle of Brunanburgh. | 961. Dunstan made Archbishop of Canterbury. |
| | 963. Edgar invades Wales. |
| | 979. Death of Edward "the Martyr." |

Edward the Elder—The Normans in France.

" . . . the same forces which merged the Dane in the Englishman told even more powerfully on the Dane in France. No race has ever shewn a greater power of absorbing all the nobler characteristics of the people with whom they came in contact, or of infusing their own energy into them."

Green : " History of the English People."

ON Alfred's death, his son **Edward** (901) came to the throne. Edward is known to us as Edward the *Elder*, and is so called to distinguish him from another King Edward, who lived a hundred and fifty years later, and whose history we shall read. Edward the *Elder* proved a worthy successor to his father. He continued the war against the Danes, and was frequently victorious. He received valuable aid from his sister, **Æthelfleda**, whose husband, Æthelred, the Alderman of the Mercians, was now dead. Æthelfleda soon became a well-known figure in the National War. Clad in armour, with a sword in her hand, and mounted on a white horse, she herself led the Mercian troops into battle. She was known to her people as "**The Lady of the Mercians**," and she bore herself as a worthy daughter of her father, King Alfred.

Not content with defeating the Danes in battle, Æthelfleda had the wisdom to guard against their return when lapse of time and help from across the sea should have made them strong enough to renew the attack. She built a line of castles and fortresses along the northern frontier of her Mercian kingdom, and provided regular garrisons, ready to take the field in case of war.

So successful were Edward and his sister in breaking the power of the Danes, that the latter, for the first time, began to settle down in the country which they had conquered, and to give up the thought of further invasion. The border of the country occupied by the Danes, which was known as the "**Danelagh**," was marked by the five principal towns or boroughs, as they were called, and which are now known as **Lincoln, Derby, Leicester, Stamford, and Nottingham**.

Freed for a time from the fear of Danish invasion, Edward the Elder turned his arms against the Welsh, the Scots, and against those parts of Strathclyde, and what had been formerly the kingdom of Northumbria, which still refused to admit his authority. On the death of Æthelfleda he added Mercia to his kingdom, and took the title of King, or *Over-lord* of England. In 925 Edward died, and was succeeded by his son **Athelstan**.

And here we must leave the history of England for a space, in order to follow the fortunes of those Danes whom Edward's victories and the terror of his arms had driven from our shores. It must not be supposed that because for a time the field of plunder was closed to them in England, the Northmen were content to stay in their own country. When they found that they could no longer land in England, and plunder and burn as they had been accustomed to do, they turned their boats to sea again, and sailed away to lands where conquest was easier and spoil more plentiful. Some, passing round the north coast of Scotland, reached the east coast of Ireland; others, sailing southward, landed on the north coast of France. We shall hear something more at a later stage of those who sailed to the north. Of those who sailed to the south, something must be said here.

At the head of these rovers was a chief named **Rolf**, known to his followers and in history as "**Rolf the Ganger**." The name of Rolf is still known in our day; in its commoner forms of Ralph or Rollo it is familiar to us. The story runs that Rolf the Ganger was so-called on account of his great stature; so tall was he, that when he rode on a horse his feet touched the ground on either side, and he was forced to *gang*, or "go on foot." From which story we may learn two things: in the first place, that the horses on which Rolf the Ganger and his comrades rode were very small ones—more like ponies than horses. No doubt they were like the little Shetland ponies which children ride. These small horses are still commonly used in Norway, and we can well imagine Rolf's long legs touching the ground as he bestrode one of these tiny animals.

In the second place, we may learn that the language which these Northmen talked was not unlike the language which is still talked in some parts of England and Scotland.

A Yorkshire man or a Southern Scot still talks of "*gang*" and "*ganging*," instead of "*go*" and "*going*," and to them the name of Rolf the Ganger tells its own tale; and if we write it "*Ralph the Goer*," it seems very familiar to our English ears, even though it be the name of a fierce Danish chief who lived a thousand years ago.

But the reason why the course of the story of our English history has been interrupted to give an account of Rolf and his followers, is not that we may learn lessons from the name of "The Ganger," but in order that we may read in its proper place the story of an event which was, in years to come, to have a very great effect upon our history and upon the fortunes of England.

The Northmen who sailed with Rolf landed on the French shore of the English Channel, and there set to work to rob and plunder,

as their comrades had so often done in England. **Charles the Simple**, the French king, did his best to drive them out, but was unsuccessful, and was at length compelled to follow the example of King Alfred, and to hand over to them a certain portion of his kingdom, as the price of peace, in order to save the remainder (911). The portion of France which was handed over to Rolf and his followers became known at a later day as "**Normandy**," or the country of the *Normans* or *Northmen*. Rolf received the title of *Duke of Normandy*, and fixed his capital in the town of **Rouen**. As Duke of Normandy, Rolf was supposed to rule only by leave of the King of France, but it soon became clear that the claim of authority made by Charles had little value.

The leader of the Northmen was summoned to Paris, and was bidden to kneel and kiss the foot of the French king, in token that he was ready to be true to him and to obey him as his chief. To have done so would only have been to follow the common example, for to kiss the foot of an Over-lord was an ordinary sign of obedience and submission. But the proud Norman already looked upon himself as the equal of the King of France. When he approached the throne, instead of stooping down to kiss the royal foot, he caught hold of the King's toes, and throwing him backwards, chair and all, exposed him to the ridicule of his own subjects, and to the scorn of the Normans.

But though the Normans first came into France as pirates, and conducted themselves as savage conquerors, supported by no power except the sword, they soon became a great deal more than either pirates or mere conquerors. Like the Danes in England, they settled down in the rich land they had made their new home. They learnt much from the French who surrounded them, and with their strong character and their bright wits they made the best use of what they learnt. They adopted the religion, and in a great part the speech of those whom they had conquered. They became a Christian people, and it is to them that France owes many of the splendid churches which are to be seen in Normandy to this day. They learnt to read and write, and some of them became famous as authors. They learnt to be expert workers in metal. The armour that they wore and the weapons with which they fought remain to this day as proofs of their skill. As architects and builders, their name became famous throughout the world; and to this day we speak of "*Norman Architecture*" to describe the style of building which they chose for their churches and for their fortresses.

Above all, they became a disciplined people, governed by strict laws, both in peace and in war. Accustomed to practise all military exercises, they learnt that victory was to be obtained as much by

obedience and order as by valour and strength. When we meet with these Normans again in our history, we shall then find them no longer the fierce, uncivilised warriors who landed with Rolf in 876, but disciplined, well-trained soldiers, men skilled in all the learning of their day, law-makers, and statesmen, as fit to conquer as the followers of Rolf, and far more fit to rule.

The Victories of Æthelstan.

*"Here Æthelstan, King,
Of Earls the Lord,
Of heroes the bracelet-giver
And his brother eke,
Edmund Ætheling,
Livelong glory
In battle won
With edges of swords
Near Brumby."—"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle," 937.*

And now we must return to the course of events in England.

When we remember how completely the Danes seemed to have been defeated and subdued by Alfred and Edward the Elder, it seems strange to find that the greater part of Æthelstan's reign was occupied in defending his kingdom from Danish invasion. But such was the fact. Many of the Danes had settled down among the English, had married English wives, and learnt the English tongue, but the emigration from Norway and Denmark was by no means yet over. We have already seen how some of the Northmen had found their way southwards, and had founded the Norman State in France. Others, afraid to land in England, had sailed round to **Ireland**, in the reign of King Edward, and had planted a colony at Dublin. And now, both from Norway itself and from Ireland, there came a fresh invasion, and England once more had to defend itself. The Welsh, suffering from their defeat in fighting Edward, joined the Danes; and among their countrymen already settled in England, the Danish invaders found allies.

Æthelstan advanced against them, and at a great battle at **Brunanburgh** (937), of which the exact locality is unknown, gained a complete victory. Five of the Danish kings and seven of the great Danish chiefs, or Eorls,¹ were killed in the battle.

The story of the fight may still be read in a long poem which was written at the time. The poem is not in English such as we speak

¹ Our title of "Earl" is the same as the Danish "Jarl."

now, but it is written in the Anglo-Saxon language, which was the language which the people of England talked in the time of King Athelstan.

The poem is made up of a number of very short lines, or verses, and no doubt it was sung by the harpers, who pleased the king and his soldiers by singing to them of their brave deeds, and of their great victory over the Danes. It tells us how fierce the fight was, how bravely the English fought, and how at last the Danes were beaten, and fled. The poem has been translated into English, and here is an extract from it :—

There lay many a warrior
 Slain by the spear;
 There lay the Northmen
 Shot over the tops of their shields.
 And there were the Scots
 Weary and sad;
 The bands of West Saxons
 All day long pursued
 The hated strangers.
 * * * * *
 The Northmen departed
 In their nailed ships.¹
 * * * * *
 On the roaring ocean
 O'er the deep water,
 Dublin to seek;
 And to Ireland again,
 With minds full of shame.
 * * * * *
 Greater bloodshed
 In this island
 Has never been seen
 Before this day—
 As the books tell us,
 As the old writers say,
 Since the time when there came here
 The Angles and the Saxons
 From the East,
 Over the broad seas
 To England.

¹ This means that the planks of which their ships were made were fastened together with nails.

Dunstan.

"For Church and State."

Three years after the battle of Brunanburgh, Athelstan died, and was succeeded by his brother **Edmund** (940). Edmund was only eighteen years of age when he became king, and, encouraged by his youth, the Danes again renewed their attacks. But the new king showed himself not less courageous and successful than his brother, and defeated his enemies in several battles. Unfortunately, his reign was cut short in a tragic manner. A certain Liofa, well-known as an outlaw and a robber, was captured by order of the King, who spared his life and exiled him from the country.

After a few years had passed, Liofa returned, and finding his way to the English court, entered the great banqueting hall where Edmund was feasting. He had the boldness to walk up the hall and seat himself at the table. Indignant at the insult, Edmund ordered his servants to expel the intruder, and make him a prisoner. Liofa drew a dagger, and sought to defend himself, and the King in a passion caught the robber by the hair and threw him to the ground. But the outlaw, suddenly leaping to his feet, plunged his dagger into the King's heart. He was cut down and killed, but Edmund's wound was mortal. He died at the age of twenty-four, after a short and brilliant reign of six years. His brother **Edred** was chosen king in his place.

Edred (946) reigned a very short time; but his reign is memorable because during it we find the first mention of a very famous name—that of **Dunstan**, who, without doubt, was for many years the greatest man in England. Dunstan was born near Glastonbury in the year 925; he became a priest at a very early age, and when only eighteen was made Abbot of Glastonbury. In our own day we are familiar with many of the great abbeys of England. Some of them, such as Fountains, Tintern, and Glastonbury itself, are in ruins; others, such as Westminster and Romsey, are still used as churches. At the time when Dunstan was appointed Abbot of Glastonbury, he was at the head of a body of monks who lived in the *Monastery* surrounding the Abbey. The *monks* were men who had agreed to live together and to obey certain rules; they promised never to marry, and they undertook to give up their lives to religion and good works. The

Nunneries resembled the Monasteries, but were occupied by women who bore the name of *nuns*, and who were usually under the rule of an abbess. The name of **Hilda**, the *Abbess of Whitby* (657), is still remembered, both on account of the pious life and good works of its bearer, and on account of the great Abbey Church of **St. Hilda**, of which the ruins are to be seen on the cliff at Whitby to this day.

At the time when Dunstan lived, the monasteries were the centre of almost all the learning and education of the country, and the arts of reading and writing were chiefly known and practised by the monks and nuns. Many of the monks devoted themselves to good works, but many among them undoubtedly took a bad advantage of the safety which their religious position gave them and lived bad lives, doing harm rather than doing good.

King Edred, hearing of Dunstan and of the knowledge and ability which he showed, sent for him and made him his most trusted counsellor. The reign of Edred lasted for nine years, and that of his nephew **Edwy**, who succeeded him, lasted only three years. It was not till **Edgar** (959), Edwy's brother, came to the throne, that Dunstan became really powerful. Edwy had sent Dunstan away from the Court, but Edgar recalled him, and made him his chief adviser in all that he did.

We know enough of the life of Dunstan to be able to form some idea of what kind of a man he was. Like all other men, he was a mixture of good and evil, and certainly had many faults; but he was beyond doubt a wise and honest adviser to those who asked for his advice and followed it. He had two great ambitions—the one to make England great and powerful; the other to make the Church, and all those who belonged to the Church, powerful and rich. He was a stern, harsh man, and always anxious to have his own way; to those who disagreed with him, he was rough and cruel. Such a man was sure to make enemies, and Dunstan made many; but he did much that was good, and his name has always been justly remembered as that of a great Englishman. He was made Archbishop of Canterbury by King Edgar, and he used his power in that high position to do all the good he could to the Church of which he was the head. As Abbot of Glastonbury, he had learnt that many of the monasteries were in very bad order, and that priests and monks were leading lives that brought shame upon the Church. He caused inquiry to be made, drove out the evil-doers, and put better men in their places. After his death men called him a saint, and many strange stories were told of the wonderful things he was



ROMSEY ABBEY.
(From a photograph by A. Seely, Richmond.)

said to have done while he was alive. The name of Dunstan is still to be found in many places in England, and there are no less than nineteen churches which are called "*St. Dunstan's*," after the great man of whom we have been reading.

In the middle of the busy streets of the city of London, in Fleet Street, there stands a church with a tall tower, which recalls the name of King Edgar's great Archbishop, for it is called the "*Church of St. Dunstan*."

Edgar.

*Was no fleet so insolent,
No host so strong,
That in the English race
Took from him aught
The while the noble King
Reigned on his throne!*

Description of Edgar in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle."

With Dunstan's help, Edgar became a great king, and in his time there was peace in England. All the "*Under-Kings*," or chiefs, obeyed



ONE OF OUR ENGLISH WILD BEASTS—THE BADGER.

him, and were willing to serve him. There is a story told of the king which shows how powerful he was. It is said that Edgar was rowed in



ST. DUNSTAN'S CHURCH, FLEET STREET, LONDON.
(From a photograph by J. Valentine & Sons, Dundee.)

a boat on the River Dee, near Chester, and that every one of the eight rowers was himself an English, Scottish, or a Welsh king who had submitted to the great King of England.

There is another story told of King Edgar and his times which helps



ONE OF OUR ENGLISH WILD BEASTS
—THE WEASEL.

us to understand what a change has taken place in our country since his day. In his reign there were thousands of *wolves* in Wales, and they were so fierce, that at last Edgar determined to get rid of them. At that time the Welsh paid to the king a sum of money in the form of a tribute. Edgar sent to the Welsh and told them that for the future they need not pay any tribute in money, but that, instead, they must send him each year the heads of three hundred wolves. The Welsh obeyed, and many hundreds of wolves' heads were brought to the King. But though so many were killed, it is certain that very many must have been left alive; for there were plenty of wolves in Wales, and in England too, long after the days of King Edgar.

It seems strange to think of these savage animals running wild in our country. Now, the largest wild animal that eats other creatures which is left in England is the badger; and as there are very few badgers, and as the very few that are left generally take their walks between one and three o'clock in the morning, when most

of us are in bed and asleep, not many people ever see a badger at all.

It is true that there are other wild animals of the same kind still left, but they are even smaller than the badgers. There are the foxes; but if it were not that foxes were kept for hunting in some parts of the country, there would soon be no foxes left alive. There are also a few

otters, and there are weasels and stoats, which are fierce little creatures. But the day has long gone by when Englishmen have anything to fear from any wild beast, such as the wild boars and the wolves, which were common in every part of the land in the time of King Edgar.

King **Edgar** died when he was thirty-two years old. He had been twice married. His first wife was called **Ælfeda**, and she had a son named **Edward**. Edgar's second wife was called **Ælfrida**, and she also had a son whose name was **Æthelred**. There was a division among the people as to which of the young princes should succeed to the throne, and two parties were formed. Dunstan took up the cause of Edward, who was only a boy of fourteen, and whom the great Archbishop could easily guide. But though



THE MURDER OF KING EDWARD.

Edward had succeeded in gaining the crown, his life was but a short one, and had a tragic ending. Jealous of her step-son, and longing to see her own boy **Æthelred** made king, **Ælfrida** plotted against the young king's life, and soon found means to carry out her plan. One day, as Edward was out hunting, he stopped, as he rode back from the hunt, at the door of Corfe Castle, in Dorsetshire, where his step-mother lived. When **Ælfrida** heard that the king was at the door, she came out and begged him to dismount, and enter the castle. The king, however, refused to enter. No doubt he knew that

his step-mother was jealous of him, and wished to do him an injury. He would only stop to drink a cup of wine, he said, and then ride on again. The wine was brought, but while the king was drinking, a man, paid by Ælfrida to do the deed, stabbed him in the back, and killed him. The people heard with regret of the murder of the young king, but Ælfrida rejoiced, because nothing now stood in the way of her own son **Æthelred**.

Æthelred now, in an unlucky hour for his country, ascended the throne. As for Ælfrida, she soon found that her crime had not brought her happiness. Overcome by remorse, she shut herself in a nunnery, and passed the rest of her life sorrowing over the wrong she had done.



CHAPTER VIII.

THE DANISH CONQUEST.

979 - 1016.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

Æthelred, "The Un-redy," son of Edgar and Ælfrida, became king 979, d. 1016.

Ælfæd, first wife of Æthelred.

Edmund "Ironside," son of Æthelred and Ælfæd, afterwards King of England, b. 989.

Edward the "Confessor," son of Æthelred and Emma, afterwards, King of England, b. 1004.

Sweyn, King of the Danes, d. 1014.

Canute, King of Denmark, afterwards King of England.

Richard II. ("The Good"), Duke of Normandy, 996.

Emma, sister of Richard, Duke of Normandy, second wife of Æthelred, m. 1002.

Hugh Capet, King of France, d. 996.

Edric Streona, an English chief.

Alphege (St. Alphege), Archbishop of Canterbury, killed by the Danes 1012.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

1002. Æthelred marries Emma of Normandy. November 13th—St. Brice's Day; Massacre of the Danes in England.

1006. The Danes overrun England.

1011. Canterbury taken by the Danes.

1012. Alphege murdered by the Danes.

1013. Flight of Æthelred to Normandy.

1013. Sweyn becomes King of England.

1014. Death of Sweyn.

Æthelred returns to England.

1015. Canute, King of Denmark, lands in Dorsetshire.

1016. Death of Æthelred.

Æthelred, "The 'Un-redy,"

"The prince that wanteth understanding is also a great oppressor."—
Proverbs xxviii, 16.

THE reign of Æthelred (979) was an unhappy one for England. Æthelred was called *The "Unready."* This name did not mean that the King was unpunctual, or that he was not ready to do things when they had to be done—it really meant something quite different. There is an Anglo-Saxon word "*rede*," which means "*counsel*," and Æthelred the "**Unready**" really meant *Æthelred the Un-redy*—that is to say, a man who was not well counselled or well advised in what he did.

The very first thing which Æthelred did when he became king showed that he was indeed without "*rede*"; for he quarrelled with the wisest counsellor he had. This wise counsellor was **Dunstan**, who was soon obliged to leave the king's court and to go and live far away, to escape from his enemies, who were the young king's friends.

The wise old man saw that the king would bring misfortune upon his country, but he could do nothing to stop it. Dunstan died in the year 988, nine years after Æthelred had come to the throne; he was sixty-three years old when he died. Seven kings had reigned in England during his life, and he had been the friend and adviser of four of them.

Other people besides Dunstan soon saw that Æthelred was a weak man, and without counsel. Among the persons who saw this was **Sweyn**, King of the Danes. Sweyn, who was called by his people "**Sweyn of the Forked Beard**," or "**Fork-beard**," was a great and powerful king, and he longed to come over to England and win victories over the English, as so many other Danish kings had done before him. At last he persuaded **Olaf**, King of Norway, to join with him, and the two kings sailed together with their fleet into the River Thames.

The English in London fought bravely, but Æthelred was less brave than his people. He thought of a way of getting rid of the Danes which would save him the trouble of fighting them. He offered to pay them large sums of money if they would go away and leave England in peace. It soon became plain that this was very nearly the worst plan he could have chosen; the Danes found out

that Æthelred was afraid of them, and when they knew that they could get money by coming over, they came again and again.

Æthelred now put a tax upon the English; each man had to pay so much a year towards the sum which was to be given to the Danes. This tax was called the "**Dane-geld**," or the "*Dane Money*."¹ Naturally enough, the Danes, as soon as they learnt that the Dane-geld was ready for them, lost no time in coming over to get it. And thus matters became worse than when the English had shown a brave front to their enemies.

Once more Æthelred showed how "*un-redy*" he was, for he thought of a new plan of getting rid of the Danes which was even worse than that of paying them money to go. He gave secret orders that on a certain night all the Danes who were living in England were to be killed. The night which was chosen was that of **St. Brice's Day**, which is on the 13th of November (1002). On that night a great many of the Danes, who suspected no harm, were cruelly put to death.

Among those who were killed, was the sister of Sweyn, King of Denmark. When Sweyn heard what had been done, he was terribly angry, and he vowed that he would come to England and destroy all that he could find there.

He sailed with an army, and came to **Exeter**. He took and burnt the city of Exeter, and killed many of the English. The next year he came to England again, and this time he landed near Norwich. The English were foolish enough to promise to pay the Danes a great sum of money if they would go away and not injure their town. The Danes took the money, and then burnt the town they had promised to spare.

Æthelred the Un-redy could do nothing to beat back the armies of the Danes, and soon misfortunes multiplied, for **Edric Streona**, one of Æthelred's own generals, and a great chief among the people, went over and joined the Danes with some of the English ships.

St. Alphege.

"Then was it in every wise a heavy time because the Northmen never ceased from their evil doings."—"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle." A.D. 1000.

At last Æthelred had scarcely any towns left in his possession. Every one had been taken by the Danes except **London** and **Canterbury**.

¹ The German word for money is still "*geld*."

Soon a strong army of Danes marched to Canterbury. They took the city and burned it to the ground. The Archbishop of Canterbury at that time was called **Alphege**. He was made prisoner by the Danes.



THE DEATH OF ALPHEGE.

They told Alphege that if his people would pay a large sum of money, he should be set free. Then the Archbishop replied: "*My people are poor and in distress. They had little before you came, and now you have taken from them the little that they have. I will never make my people pay to set me free.*"

At first the Danes did not believe him. They thought that he would be afraid of death, and that he would ask his friends to pay the money. But Alphege was as brave as he was good. He took no trouble to try and get the money, but he spent his time in trying to convert to Christianity the Danish soldiers who guarded him.

The Danes now became angry; and one day, when their chiefs were feasting together, they sent for Alphege, their prisoner, and had him brought before them. In their fierce drunken anger they cried out to the Archbishop, "*Where is your gold? Give us the gold!*" Alphege stood calm and unmoved. Then the feasters dragged Alphege out of the hall, and began to throw at him their drinking cups and the bones which were left from the meat upon which they had been feasting.

The Archbishop fell upon his knees; and as he knelt, one of the Danes struck him to the ground with his axe, and killed him.

It is not wonderful that the English people were proud of their good Archbishop, and that they soon learnt to call him "*Saint Alphege.*"

There is a church in the town of Greenwich called the church of *St. Alphege*, and in it these words were written up, and could be read by anyone until a few years ago, when the church was altered:

"This Church was built to the Glory of God, and in memory of St. Alphege, Archbishop of Canterbury, who was here slain by the Danes, because he would not ransom his life by an unreasonable sum of money."

At last Æthelred gave up all hope of fighting against the Danes, and fled like a coward from his country. Thereupon **Sweyn**, King of Denmark, became the real King of England (1013), and for the first time there was a Danish king upon the English throne.

When Sweyn died, the people of England sent for Æthelred, and made him return to his country. They preferred to have a king of their own, even though he were a bad one, rather than a foreigner.

But Æthelred had not learnt wisdom while he was in exile; and though he and his son **Edmund** fought against the Danes, and tried once more to free the country from them, the English were again beaten and the Danes left masters of the field.

Æthelred was twice married. His first wife was named **Ælfæd**. His second was **Emma of Normandy**, sister of Richard "*The Good*," Duke of Normandy.

Æthelred died in the year 1016, when he was forty-eight years old. He had been king for thirty-seven years. Seldom has England been so unhappy and so unlucky as it was in the days of "**Æthelred the Un-redy.**"

CHAPTER IX.

THE DANISH KINGS AND EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.

1016—1066.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE PERIOD DESCRIBED
IN THIS CHAPTER.

Edmund (Ironside), son of Æthelred and Ælflæd, became King of England 1016, murdered 1016.

Edward, son of Edmund Ironside, d. 1057.

Edmund, son of Edmund Ironside.

Canute, son of Sweyn, King of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, became King of England 1017, d. 1035.

Emma, widow of Æthelred, wife of Canute, m. 1017.

Harold, son of Canute, became King of England 1037, d. 1040.

Harthacanute, son of Canute, became King of England 1040, d. 1042.

Sweyn, son of Canute, King of Norway.

Edward (called "The Confessor"), son of Æthelred and Emma, became King of England 1042, d. 1066.

Edith, daughter of Earl Godwin, wife of Edward the Confessor.

Leofric of Mercia, an English Earl.

Godwin, an English Earl, d. 1053.

Sweyn, son of Godwin.

Harold, son of Godwin, afterwards King of England.

Tostig, son of Godwin, d. 1066.

William, Duke of Normandy.

Edward, son of Edmund Ironside, nephew of Edward the Confessor.

Edgar (known as "Edgar Atheling"), son of Edward.

Margaret, daughter of Edward.

Christina, daughter of Edward.

Malcolm III., King of Scots, husband of Margaret.

Harold Hardrada, chief of the Northmen.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS
CHAPTER.

1016. Murder of Edmund Ironside.

1017. Canute becomes King of England.

1027. Birth of William of Normandy.

1035. Death of Canute.

Harold and Harthacanute divide England.

1037. Harold becomes King alone.

1040. Death of Harold. Succeeded by Harthacanute.

1042. Death of Harthacanute.

1042. Edward the Confessor becomes King.

1049. Westminster Abbey commenced.

1051. Banishment of Earl Godwin.

1052. Return of Earl Godwin and his sons.

1057. Death of Edward, son of Edmund Ironside.

1065. King Edward collects the Anglo-Saxon laws.

Westminster Abbey dedicated.

1066. Death of Edward the Confessor.

Edmund Ironside and Canute. Harold and Harthacanute.

"Canute, King of England, Denmark, Norway, and part of the Swedes, to Æthelnoth, Metropolitan,¹ and Elfric, Archbishop of York, and to all bishops, nobles, and to the whole nation of the English high and low, health."—From a Letter of King Canute to the English.

AFTER the death of Æthelred, his son **Edmund** became king (1016). Edmund was a brave man and a good soldier, and justly gained the honourable title of **Edmund Ironside**. He fought many battles against Canute and the Danes; and at last both sides, weary of fighting, agreed to divide England between them. **Canute** was to have one part, and **Edmund Ironside** was to have the other part.

But this plan of having two kings did not last long; for after he had been king only seven months, Edmund died, leaving two little children, called **Edward** and **Edmund**. We must not forget **Edward**, the son of Edmund, for although he himself played no part in our history, his son, **Edgar Atheling**, and his daughter, **Margaret**, were both important personages, and became famous in their day. For the time they fled to Sweden, where they found a refuge.

When King Edmund Ironside died, **Canute, the Dane**, became king over all England (1017), for there was now no serious rival to fight against. Although Canute was a foreigner, he proved to be a very good king. He made up his mind that he would make friends with the English, and that he would govern the country in the way they wished. He sent away many of the Danes who had come over with him from Denmark, and gave the offices which they held to Englishmen. He said that the English laws should be observed, and not the Danish ones, and that equal justice should be done to Danes and English alike. He divided the English kingdom into four great divisions, each of which he put under the government of a "*jarl*," or Earl. We shall see that these Earls became very important persons before many years had gone by. He married **Emma of Normandy**, who was the widow of King Æthelred the Unready.

It is not wonderful that, when the English saw how friendly King Canute was to them, they should be ready to help him and to obey him. So popular did he become with his new subjects, that, when he

¹ *Metropolitan.*—The Archbishop of Canterbury; the head, or Metropolitan of the Church in England.

crossed the sea to fight against his enemies in Sweden, many of the English went with him, to fight as his soldiers. An English army, under King Canute, fought against the Swedes, and defeated them in a great battle.

While Canute was king, the people of foreign countries learnt to fear and respect England; and the name of Canute was well known throughout all Europe.

A well-known story is told of Canute, which shows that the king was as wise as well as a powerful monarch. One day, so the old chronicle tells us, the king, surrounded by his courtiers, stood on the sea-shore at Southampton. Willing to flatter him, and thereby to win his favour, his courtiers began to praise him, and to speak with awe of his power and authority. "Give the command," said one of them, "and even the waves of the sea would obey you, and the on-coming tide cease to flow." The king heard with indignation the words of the flatterer, and turning to his courtiers, he bade them bring his chair of state and place it on the beach in front of the advancing waves. He then solemnly ordered the tide to stop its advance. But the resistless tide swelled and rose, as the king knew full well it must, until the water washed Canute's feet as he sat on his throne. Then turning to his courtiers he sternly rebuked them.

Canute died when he was forty years old (1035), and after his death misfortune once more fell upon England. Canute had three sons—**Harthacanute**, **Sweyn**, and **Harold**. **Sweyn** became King of *Norway*, **Harthacanute** became King of *Denmark*; but the question as to which of the three should be King of *England* brought about a sharp division. There were two parties, one in favour of **Harold**, the other of **Harthacanute**. One of the great Earls, **Leofric of Mercia**, supported **Harold**; another, **Earl Godwin**, supported **Harthacanute**.

It was at length agreed to divide England between the two kings, but this arrangement did not last long, for two years later, in 1037, **Harold** became sole king. On his death, however, **Harthacanute** succeeded him as king (1040). He was a very different man from his father; he was violent, unjust, and tyrannical. His attempts to raise taxes from the people led to a revolt, which was put down with great cruelty. Fortunately, after a short reign of two years, **Harthacanute** died; it is said that he killed himself through excessive drinking.

Edward the Confessor and the Great Earls.

"King Edward came to Westminster at midwinter, and there caused to be consecrated the Minster which himself had built to the Glory of God, and of St. Peter, and all God's saints; and the Church-hallowing was on Childermass Day (December 28th)."—"Anglo-Saxon Chronicle."

On the death of Harthacanute the English thought that the time had come to rid themselves for ever of Danish rule. The Danes in England were divided among themselves, and Harthacanute had left no son to claim the throne. The people were determined to have an English king once more, and there was no difficulty in deciding upon whom the choice should fall.

Edward, the second son of Æthelred and Emma, had taken refuge in Normandy before the reign of Canute. Messages were now sent to him, inviting him to come over and occupy the throne of his father, Æthelred. Edward accepted the invitation the more readily because it was supported by the powerful influence of **Earl Godwin**, who at this time was the most important person in England. Godwin himself sought to increase his power over the king by giving him his daughter **Edith** in marriage.

At first all seemed to go well. The English were delighted to have once more an English king, and thought that at last their country would be free from foreign interference. Unluckily, they were doomed to disappointment.

During his long stay at the Norman Court, Edward had made many friends among the Normans and had acquired the tastes and adopted the manners of those among whom he lived. That he should bring over many of his Norman friends to share his good fortunes in England was natural, but not wise. The English nobles soon found that the power had passed from the hands of the Danes only to fall into that of the Normans. An *English* party soon grew up. It was led by **Godwin**, supported by his three sons, **Sweyn**, **Harold**, and **Tostig**. It was not long before an open quarrel broke out between the Norman and the English parties. The people of Dover attacked Eustace of Boulogne, a Norman noble, who had married King Edward's sister. They charged him with having insulted one of their townsmen. A riot followed, and Eustace barely escaped with his life.

Godwin supported the people of Dover, Edward stood by his

Norman friends, and both sides openly took up arms. At first, fortune favoured the king, and he succeeded in driving Godwin and his three sons out of the country, but it was not long before the earl returned, stronger than ever. The people refused to support the king, whose whole favour was given to the Normans, and nothing was left for him but to submit to Godwin and to receive him into his favour.

Shortly after his return, Godwin died (1052), lamented by the English. His sons, Harold, Sweyn, and Tostig, became as great and as powerful as their father had been before them. Of the three brothers, **Harold** was the most powerful, and the weakness of Edward served to increase his influence.

The remaining years of Edward's reign are, indeed, occupied far more with the history of Harold than of the king himself. Step by step Harold succeeded in overcoming the other great nobles who might have disputed the mastery with him, till at last he was, without question, the foremost man in the kingdom.

Meanwhile, the king lived on; but he had no son, and it was clear that on his death there would be a struggle for the throne. The true heir would, no doubt, have been another *Edward*, a son of the king's elder brother, **Edmund Ironside**. **Edward**, with his three children, **Edgar**, **Margaret**, and **Christina**, was in Hungary. He was invited over to England, and would, no doubt, have been chosen king on his uncle's death had he not died within a few days after reaching England. His place should naturally have been taken by his son **Edgar**, known as "*Edgar Atheling*." But though Edgar Atheling played a great part in English history at a later date, and though his descendants became kings and queens of England, he himself never sat upon the throne.

It may seem strange that in this short account which has been given of the reign of King Edward so little should have been said about the king himself. It seems all the more strange when we remember that the name of this weak and unsuccessful king is, perhaps, better known to us than that of any of the Saxon kings, with the exception of Alfred. It was not till after his death that Edward received the title of "*The Confessor*."¹

By this name he will be always remembered, and the name of **Edward the Confessor** will always be connected with one great monument in English history. The king himself was a man of weak character, and did little for his country in stormy times; but he was pious and studious, a lover of books, and preferred the company of priests and students to that of soldiers and statesmen. From priests and students, therefore, he received due honour; and as in those days the priests

¹ "*Confessor*" meaning one who had suffered for his religion.

were the only writers of history, it was natural that they should have spoken with praise and admiration of one who was friendly to them and to their Church. It has been said that the name of Edward the Confessor will always be connected with one great monument: it is that in which his own tomb may still be seen. In his day there lay in the middle of the River Thames a little island, named **Thorney Island**.



"ROSE" WINDOW IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

On either side of it were marshes, and the Thames flowed broad and shallow, very different from the deep, swift stream which we see now. If we stand on Westminster Bridge, in the heart of London, we look down upon the spot where the Island of Thorney lay eight hundred and thirty years ago. It was on this island that King Edward built his church, which was dedicated to *St. Peter*. As we stand on Westminster Bridge, we can see two towers rising close to the Houses of Parliament; these are the towers of the "**Church of St. Peter.**"

On the opposite page is a picture of the church. It is very different from that which Edward built more than eight hundred years ago, for many English kings and queens have added to the work which Edward began, and the beautiful building which we see in the picture has grown bit by bit, until it has become one of the greatest and most famous churches in the world. It is called by the name which King Edward gave to it—"The Church of Saint Peter"; but all Englishmen know it still better by another name, and speak of it as "**Westminster Abbey.**"

It is in Westminster Abbey that many of England's greatest men lie buried, and under its tall Pointed arches we can see the graves of many famous men whose names are known to all the world. And when we see them we must not forget to ask which is the grave of **Edward the Confessor**, King of England, who first built the church of Saint Peter on Thorney Island more than eight hundred years ago.



WESTMINSTER ABBEY.
(Photo by F. G. O. Stuart, Southampton.)

CHAPTER X.

THE NORMAN CONQUERORS.

1066.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

Harold, King of England, killed at Hastings, October 14th, 1066.**William the Conqueror**, Duke of Normandy, afterwards William I., King of England.**Matilda**, wife of William the Conqueror.**Tostig**, brother of Harold, killed at the battle of Stamford Bridge.**Harold Hardrada**, chief of the Northmen, killed at the battle of Stamford Bridge.**Edgar Atheling**, great-nephew of Edward the Confessor.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE PERIOD DESCRIBED IN THIS CHAPTER.

1066. January 6th—Harold becomes King of England.

1066. September 25th—Battle of Stamford Bridge.
October 14th—Battle of Hastings.

The Last of the English Kings.

"And this year also was Harold consecrated King; and he with little quiet abode therein, the while that he wielded the Realm."—Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

ON the death of Edward the Confessor, **Harold** at once came forward and claimed the throne. We have seen that he was not the true heir, but that **Edgar**, *The Atheling*, was alive. But at that time the rule that the Kings of England should succeed to the throne by right of birth was not fixed, nor always followed. Harold was on the spot, and powerful; Edgar was afar off—young, and without friends. It was not unnatural, therefore, that the *Witanagemot*, or Assembly of Councillors, should have agreed to choose as their king the great and powerful Earl of Wessex.

Harold showed himself not unworthy of the choice; and as long as he had only to contend with enemies within his own kingdom, he proved successful in all he undertook. He attacked and defeated

the Welsh, who had made themselves a terror to the English on the banks of the Severn. He defeated, or he won to his side, the great nobles who threatened his throne, and he won the confidence of the people, who saw in him a brave and wise sovereign of the same race and the same speech as themselves.

Unfortunately, the reign, so happily begun, was to end in a



HAROLD TAKEN PRISONER ON THE NORMAN COAST.

disaster, and Harold himself was partly to blame for the fate which was so soon to overtake both himself and his people.

Before we recount the last chapter in the history of our Saxon kings, we must go back for a moment to those Northern warriors who had settled on the coast of France, and who had founded the great Duchy of Normandy. Five dukes had ruled since the days of Rolf the Ganger. Now, in Harold's time there reigned in the city of Rouen a great soldier and a powerful ruler, known as **William, Duke of Normandy**. William and Harold were no strangers. About two years before the death of Edward the Confessor, the English earl was sailing down the Channel. A storm arose, the ship was wrecked, and Harold was cast ashore on the Norman coast. The duke heard that Harold was in his country. He sent messengers, and begged him

to come to Rouen. While there—so at least the Norman historians declare—Harold made a promise, that on the death of Edward the Confessor, he would recognise the claim of William to the throne of England, and would assist him to make his claim good.

The duke called upon Harold to swear to fulfil his promise with his hand placed upon a silver casket. Within the casket, we are told, were contained sacred relics, which, as it was believed at that time, made the oath more solemn and binding than it would otherwise have been, and made it a great sin on Harold's part to break it. It may well be asked what claim William of Normandy had to the crown of England. It was, in truth, a very slight one. His aunt, Emma of Normandy, had married King Æthelred, and Edward the Confessor, therefore, was his cousin. But William declared that there was something which gave him a greater claim than the mere fact of his being a relation to King Edward. He declared that when on a visit to England he had spoken to King Edward about the succession to the throne, and that the king had named him as his heir and successor.

It cannot be said that either the promise made by King Edward, or the oath sworn by Harold, gave William a just claim to the crown. It was soon seen that if William's claim was weak, his power of making other people admit it was strong. Harold had scarcely ascended the throne, when the duke demanded a fulfilment of the promises which he declared had been made to him. He styled himself *King of England*, called Harold a usurper, and persuaded the Bishops of the Church in Normandy to support his claim. He immediately set to work to collect an army for the invasion of England, and 900 ships and 60,000 soldiers were assembled on the Norman coast. To make the task of invasion easier, William sought for allies in England itself. He found them without difficulty. **Tostig**, Harold's brother, was angry because he himself had not been chosen king by the people. He readily promised aid to the Normans. Nor was this all. He sent to Norway, to **Harold Hardrada**, one of the most powerful of the chiefs of the Northmen, and invited him to come over with his army. Harold Hardrada agreed, and, landing in the North, joined his forces to those of Tostig.

The Battle of Hastings.

*"The Romans in England they once held sway,
The Saxons they after them led the way,
They tugged with the Danes till an overthrow
They both of them got from the Norman bow."*

King Harold was watching the English Channel, when he heard his new enemies were marching to York. He started immediately for the North with all the troops he could collect. As soon as the two armies approached each other, a messenger was sent from Tostig to ask whether Harold would make peace and agree to divide the kingdom with his brother. Harold answered like a brave Englishman. "*To my brother Tostig,*" said he "*I will give the kingdom of Northumberland, and I will make peace with him, for he is an Englishman. But to Harold Hardrada, who is a foreigner and an enemy, I will give him six feet of English ground ; or, as I hear that he is taller than most men, I will give him seven feet, but that is all the English ground he will have from me.*"

All hope of agreement was now gone, and nothing remained but to fight for the mastery. The battle that followed was long and fierce, but at length the enemy were defeated, and both Harold Hardrada and Tostig were killed. The spot where the battle was fought is known as **Stamford Bridge**, on the River Derwent, in Yorkshire. It was the last triumph of the English arms.

Harold, with his victorious army, marched off in haste to the south, to fight against his second enemy, William the Norman, but this time no victory awaited him. Four days after the battle of Stamford Bridge the Norman army landed at **Pevensey**, near Hastings. As William stepped on shore, he fell, but as he rose he picked up a clod of earth from the ground. "*See,*" said one of the duke's followers, "*our Duke has already taken the soil of England.*" Had Harold been at Pevensey with his army, he might have prevented the Normans from landing; but, unfortunately, he came too late.

The whole of the Normans got safely on shore, and marched to a place about five miles north of **Hastings**. It was not for some days that Harold was able to get an army strong enough to meet the enemy; his troops, it is said, had dispersed for the purpose of salting the meat which was to form their winter store. At last, upon the 14th day of October, in the year **1066**, the English and the Norman armies met.

At first the Normans were beaten back by the English. The English soldiers stood with their shields and their axes in a great ring round King Harold. Again and again the Normans tried to break through the ring, and each time they were beaten back.

At last William ordered the Normans to pretend to run away. Then the English broke their ranks and followed them; but as soon as they had broken their ranks, the Norman horsemen rode among them and cut them down without difficulty. But still the great ring round the king remained unbroken. Then William thought of another plan—he bade his archers fire their arrows up into the air, so that they should fall on the heads of the English.

It so happened that one of these arrows struck King Harold in the eye. The king fell to the ground mortally wounded. Then those who had stood round him began to give way, and when the English saw that the Royal Standard had fallen, and that their king was dead, they fled on every side.

Soon the battle was over, and the Normans had won the victory. Fifteen thousand of the Norman soldiers had been killed, and a still greater number of the English. The body of King Harold was found the next day upon the battlefield. It was buried under a heap of stones, but it was afterwards taken away and buried again at **Waltham Abbey**, in the county of Essex.

And so ended for many years the story of our English kings. **William the Norman** became King of England (1066), and for more than a hundred years England was ruled by foreigners, and was under the power of the Normans. A great abbey was built on the battlefield in memory of the great fight, and it is called to this day "**Battle Abbey**."



CHAPTER XI.

THE STORY OF THE ENGLISH.

Our Forefathers in Germany.

"The history of the English people begins among the forests of Germany."

THE last few chapters have been given up to the story of the Saxons in England, and the rule of the *Anglo-Saxon kings*. A few

pages further on we shall read of the fall of the Anglo-Saxon kings, and of the rise of another power in England—that of the *Normans*. This is, therefore, a proper and convenient place to say something more about our Anglo-Saxon forefathers, and to ask not only what they did, but what manner of men they were, what language they spoke, and what were their customs and their laws. Anyone who desires to learn the history of his country must follow the events which took place, must acquaint himself with the names of the kings, must know something of the battles which were fought, and of the portions of the various kingdoms, which, one after another, became powerful in England. It is for this reason that a brief account of these matters has been given in the preceding chapters of this book; but it must not be supposed that when the nature and order of these events has been learnt we have made ourselves master of what is really important in the history of Saxon England.

The fact that a particular King of Mercia was named Offa or Penda, that Æthelred was a poor creature, or that Edmund lost his life by treachery, makes very little difference to us who are now alive.

But there are parts of the history of the Anglo-Saxons which are of the greatest importance to us, because they explain much in the story of our country which would otherwise be difficult to understand, and because to them may be traced the things which we see and do, the words which we use, and the laws which we live under at the present day.

Once more, it is well to call to mind the fact that the number of pages in a history book does not always represent the number of years in that people's history. Scarcely seventy pages have been given up in this book to telling the story of the early English, but if we remember that between the time when Hengist and Horsa landed at Ebbsfleet in 449, and the time when Harold, the last of the Anglo-Saxon kings, lost his life in 1066, is a space of no less than *six hundred and seventeen years*, we shall see that there was plenty of time for England to become a very Anglo-Saxon country. That it did so become, and indeed from that time to this has never really been anything else, we shall soon see.

But it is not much use saying that England became an Anglo-Saxon or an English country unless we know what the Anglo-Saxons or English were like. To learn this, it will be well to go back to the earliest account of our ancestors which exists. If we had to depend upon the fierce companions of Hengist and Horsa for our accounts, we should know very little about the subject; for, though in later

days there were many famous Anglo-Saxon writers, both poets and historians, the earliest invaders of our shores were far greater masters of the sword than of the pen. Luckily, the same great writer who told us much of what we know of the ancient Britons has given us an account also of our Anglo-Saxon ancestors. **Caius Cornelius Tacitus**, the Roman who, in his book the "*Agricola*," left us an account of Britain, also wrote another book called "*Germania*," or Germany, which has happily been preserved down to our own day. In this book an account is given of the German tribes who inhabited the northern part of Central Europe, and with whom the Romans, in the time of Tacitus, were often at war.

But it will be asked—what have these German tribes to do with our Anglo-Saxon forefathers? As a matter of fact, they have a great deal to do with them; for it was from these very German tribes that the Anglo-Saxon invaders came, bringing with them their language, their customs and their laws. An historian who set to work to write the history of the people of the United States of America, and made no mention of those European countries from which the white inhabitants of the United States first came would be making a great mistake; and in the same way, anyone who wrote the history of the Anglo-Saxons without enquiring who they were and where they came from would be only half telling the story.

Tacitus was one of the greatest of the Roman writers, and he manages to tell in a few words more than many other writers tell in a whole book. We may be sure that the description which he gives us of the Germans tells us all that he knew or believed with respect to them. This is how he describes them:—"A fine, unmixed, and independent race, unlike any other people . . . with stern blue eyes, ruddy hair, of large and robust frames, but with a strength which only appeared when roused to sudden effort." Such were the Germans in appearance. "They would be the slaves of no man; they respected their women, and held them in love and honour. They considered no disgrace equal to that which was the sure reward of a man who showed himself a coward in battle. Fierce and cruel in war, they were content, when the war was over, to lay aside the sword and spear, and to plough their fields and to cultivate their land in peace and quiet."

They were free men, living in little villages scattered throughout a great uninhabited country. Their habits and their laws grew naturally out of the life they lived. In the centre of the little settlement was the village, and all round it for miles lay the uncultivated land, forest, barren heath, or marsh-land. A people which has once settled down to a fixed

home soon has to give up hunting as a means of living, and has to take to cultivating the soil. This the Germans did. The head of each family cultivated a plot for himself. That was his own. The *pasture-land* was common to all. Newcomers or old settlers who wanted more land could only have it if it were given to them by the whole village. Sometimes then, as now, people wanted land only for a short time, and for a certain purpose; in that case, it was "let," or "leased," to them.¹

The heads of the village were the "*Elders*," or "*Eldermen*," and the meeting in which the rules of the village were made was known as the "*Folk-Moot*," or People's Council. Each village governed itself, but that did not prevent the people of the same tribe or nation joining together for the purposes of war. The expeditions which from time to time advanced against the neighbouring peoples, and which finally reached the shores of England, were led by chiefs who had made themselves famous by their success in war. Each chief was surrounded by a band of young warriors, who swore to follow him and to serve him. To these he often gave lands which were taken in war, and by reason of their friendship with the chief, the followers, in time, came to be looked upon as persons of special distinction, or noblemen.

The chiefs themselves were, as a rule, chosen from those families of noble birth whose members claimed that they were descended from the gods. They were chosen for their bravery, their experience of warfare, and their bodily strength. Cowardice in the field was considered, as we have seen, to be the greatest of all crimes, the only crime for which it was impossible to atone. Tacitus, who has described the appearance and manners of the Germans, has given us a special account of the band who followed their chiefs. "In the field of battle," he tells us, "it is disgraceful in the prince to be surpassed in valour by his companions. . . . All are bound to defend him and to succour him in the heat of battle, and to make even their own actions add to his renown. This is the bond of honour, the most sacred duty."

The language which these free and warlike Germans spoke did not very greatly differ from that which is spoken at the present day in the country from which they came. In many parts of North-western Germany a language is still spoken which is called "*Platt-deutsch*," or "*Low German*," and this Low German is really very like the English

¹ The land which belonged to the first settlers was known as "*Ethel*." Land which was given to newcomers or old settlers out of what belonged to the whole village was called "*Bocland*," because it was given by a charter or "*book*." Commonland belonging to all the people, or *folk*, was the "*Folkland*." The land which was let was the "*Laen*" or "*Loan*" land.

which is spoken in Yorkshire and the North of England—so like, that it is possible to understand very many of the words, and even whole sentences, without knowing any German. The language which the German invaders brought to this country has gone through great changes in the fourteen hundred years which have passed since the landing of the Jutes; but if we compare it with the English which we speak now, we shall see in a moment that it is to the early German invaders, and not to either Romans, Britons, or Normans, that we owe the greatest part of our English language.

Our Forefathers in England.

"In the two little words, 'shire' and 'county,' if you could make them render up even a small part of their treasure, what lessons of English history are contained!"—Trench: "On the Study of Words."

We have now learnt something about the men whose descendants became the English people; we have seen them in their German homes, we must now follow them across the sea and inquire what sort of people they became, and what were their manners, customs and speech when they became masters of England. It is very important indeed to do this, because, unless we know something of the life and manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we cannot hope to understand some of the most important of the institutions of our own country in our own day. The chiefs who led the Saxon invasion brought with them their faithful companions, and as land was taken from the Britons it became the property of the new-comers; some was kept as the common property of the whole tribe, some was taken by the chief, and some was given to his followers. As the land became more settled, the custom grew up of choosing the chief or king from the same family; and at last there came to be in each kingdom a *royal family*, some member of which was always chosen as king.

The customs which had been brought from Germany became in time the laws of the new land. Several sets of Anglo-Saxon laws were drawn up by different kings. We have already read of the laws of **Ine**, King of Wessex, and of **Alfred**, and these and others still remain, and may be read in our time. From them we learn many interesting things about the way in which justice was done.

Each village or settlement was made answerable for the crime that was committed in it; it was the business of the village to punish the guilty persons, and to pay the fine which the law imposed.

The **Village Council** governed the village, and a person who was charged with crime had to prove his innocence to his fellow-villagers; as they had to pay for his fault, it was their business to find out whether he were really guilty—and thus we see the beginning of an institution which has lasted down to our own day, namely, the trial of a man by his neighbours and equals. To this day the decision as to a prisoner's guilt or innocence depends upon the verdict of twelve men of the county or town in which the crime he is charged with is committed; and it is the business of these twelve men who form the "*jury*" to "*well and truly try*" the charge.

Besides the village council, there soon came to be councils of more importance. The country as it was conquered was divided up into "*shares*" or "*shires*," and in each of these there was a *Shire-Council*, or *Shire-Moot*. The **Shire-Moot** both made laws and rules, and tried people for offences. We have nothing quite like this at the present day, but we have a *County Court*, or *Shire Court*, which decides disputes, and we have a *County Council*, or *Shire-Council*, which makes rules and laws for the shire. Even where a custom has long died out in England, if it be a good one, English people are fond of going back to it.

Not long after the Saxons became Christians, the country was divided up into "*Parishes*" as well as shires, and now we have gone back to the old names and the old things, and we have a *Parish Council* and a *County Council* once more. It is strange to read in the "**Anglo-Saxon Chronicle**," written a thousand years ago, of the doings of the *Shire-Moots* of **Kesteven**, **Holland**, and **Lindsey**, and then to take up a Lincolnshire newspaper of to-day and read about the *County Councils* of **Kesteven**, **Holland**, and **Lindsey**. It cannot be said that there was an English Parliament in exactly the same sense as we speak of Parliament now, but there was in the latter part of the Anglo-Saxon times a great Council known as the "**Witanagemot**," or *Council of the Wise*. The members were not elected, but were chosen by the king from the great families; perhaps there were some persons who had the right to attend. But though the Witanagemot was not elected, it often had great power, and questions which interested the people were freely discussed at its meetings.

But it is not only in the parish councils and the juries of the early English that we find things which remind us of what is very familiar to us at the present day. There is scarcely a name of a common thing,

or a common custom mentioned in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" which has not got a meaning in our own day. We still have Dorsetshire, the "*Share*" of the *Dorsætas*; the *Beadle* of the County Court might have been an officer under King Alfred. It is a "*furlong*," or a "*furrow-long*" from the *County Court* to the *Parish Church* of *St. Edmund the Martyr*, or *St. Edward the Confessor*. The *Alderman* still takes a high place in the *Town Council*. The names of places, also, remain to teach us our history wherever we go throughout England.

It was in the eastern part of our island that the invaders first settled down, after having driven out or put to death the British population. The names which the followers of Hengist and Horsa gave to the new country, are the familiar names in daily use among us at this day. It is a thousand years ago since a gift of land was made to the *Abbey of Medeshamsted*. Those who drew up the Charter were careful to see that there should be no mistake as to what the gift was, and they wrote down the boundaries of the property as carefully as a lawyer would at the present day. The *Abbey of Medeshamsted* has now become the *Cathedral of Peterborough*; and if we look at the map of the counties of Northampton and Cambridge, we shall be able to follow the description given in the Charter almost as easily as if it had been drawn up yesterday.

Here are the words of the gift:—

"This is the gift from *Medeshamsted* to *North Burh*, and so to the place which is called *Folies*, and so all the *Fen* right to *Esendic*, to the place which is called *Fethermuth*; and so on the straight way ten miles on to *Cuggedic*, and so to *Raggewilth*; and from *Raggewilth* five miles to the straight river that goes to *Aehm* and to *Wisbec*, and so about three miles to *Throkonholt*, right through all the *Fen* country to *Dereward*, which is twenty miles long, and so to *Cynate Cross*, and so on through all the meres and fens which lie towards *Huntendun Port*, through *Welmesford*, *Clive*, *Aestun*, *Stanford*, and from *Stanford* as the water runs to the aforesaid *North Burh*."

Some of these names do not seem quite familiar to us, but there is not one of them that we cannot find on the map in a form so like that given in the Charter that there can be no mistaking it. *Northburgh* exists now as it did in the days of Wolthere, who made the grant. We have no *Raggewilth*, but *Rothwell* marks its place. The Great Northern Railway runs through *Wisbech* and *Huntingdon*. *Clive*, in its old form is forgotten, but in its newer form of *King's Cliffe* is still familiar to us. *Aehm* has given place to *Elm*. *Throkonholt* survives as *Throckenholt*. *Dereward*, in the Fens, is still to be found in the Fens as *Dereworth*. *Cynate Cross* is *Great Cross*, *Welmesford* is *Walmsford*, *Aestun* is *Aston*, and *Stanford*, with the change of a letter, has come down to us as *Stamford*.

CHAPTER XII.

THE HISTORIANS AND WRITERS OF ENGLAND BEFORE
THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

"And in truth after his time there were those among the English race who essayed to write religious poems, but not one was able to come on a level with him. For he learnt the art of song, not from man, nor from any human source, but received it, as a free gift by Divine grace."

Bede, describing Cædmon and his Poetry,

Now that we have come to an end of one long chapter in our history, it is natural to ask how we know anything of the facts which took place in days so long ago as those of the Britons, or even in the later times of Edgar and Alfred—who are the historians that have preserved for us a record of these events, what are the books which they have written, and in what language can the story which they told be read? Happily for the world, the great conquests of Rome spread the Latin language over all Europe; and, at a later date, the Christian Church, in its effort to reach the heathen to whom it sent its missionaries, preserved the Latin language as the language of the Church. And thus it came about that for many hundred years almost all the books in the world were written in Latin—a language easy to understand, clear and certain in its expressions, and which tells us about the events which it records as plainly as it told the story to the friends of Cæsar in Rome, or to the monks who surrounded the Venerable Bede in his abbey in Northumberland eight hundred years later.

We have already seen how two great Roman writers have told us in Latin the story of the Conquest of Britain; and the works of Cæsar and of Tacitus are books written in the best time of a great literature.

NENNIUS, GILDAS, ANEURIN, AND TALIESIN.

Of the Britons themselves we know very little from British writers. A few fragments of the works of writers of the ancient British or Celtic race have, however, come down to us; but it is in Ireland that the fullest Celtic records are to be found. The name of **Nennius** is attached to a history of the Britons written in Latin. Nennius, it seems, was of Celtic race, but he must have lived as late as the eighth or even

the ninth century, long after the Britons had been driven out of the greater part of Britain.

The name of **Gildas** has come down to us as that of another writer who has given us a glimpse of the Britons; but Gildas himself does not seem to have been a Celt, and little is really known of him.

Wales preserves the name of a Celtic writer named **Aneurin**, and of **Taliesin**, the chief of the Bards. Both these writers are said to have lived in the sixth century, but neither is to us much more than a name. The famous legends of **King Arthur**, the heroic king of the Britons, have really come to us from Saxon or Continental writers of a much later period.

BEOWULF, CÆDMON, AND ALDHELM.

It is not, indeed, till we come to Anglo-Saxon times that we find the first traces of a real English literature—a literature which becomes fuller and more splendid from year to year and from century to century. There are two kinds of writers who tell us the true story of our ancestors. There are the *historians* and *chroniclers*, whose task it has been to write down a record of what the men of their day said and did. There are also the *poets*, who in their way tell us as much as, and more than, the chroniclers; for they tell us what was in the thoughts and the minds of men, what were the things they believed in, loved, or feared. Luckily, we find both historians and poets at a very early date in our history. The great poem entitled "*Beowulf*" must have been written as far back as the seventh century, at a time when Oswy was king of Northumbria. It is written in Saxon. It contains over six thousand lines, and gives an account of the life and adventures of **Beowulf**, the hero, who sailed the northern seas and fought with monsters, conquered in battle, and ruled his people with wisdom and mercy. Whenever it was written, the poem was early known in England, and may be looked upon as really the first English poem.

Of about the same date is a great religious poem written by **Cædmon** of Whitby. The poem is called "*The Paraphrase*," and it tells part of the Bible story in verse, and speaks of the work of God, the power of evil, and the life of man. **Bede**, another great writer of whom we shall shortly have to speak, tells the story of the beginning of Cædmon's great poem. "As Cædmon slept," so writes Bede, "there came one to him and said, 'Sing, Cædmon.' 'I cannot,' replied he. 'I came hither from the feasting in the hall because I cannot sing.' 'But,' said the figure in the vision, 'it is to me you should sing.' 'What ought I to sing?' inquired the poet. 'Sing the beginning of creatures,' was the reply." Having received which answer, Cædmon, so Bede tells us, began immediately to sing in verse the praises of God the Creator;

and when the vision passed away he continued to write verses on the subject which had been sent to him, and in the end completed his great poem "*The Paraphrase*."

We must pass over the name of **Aldhelm** (b. 656), who, in the monastery of Malmesbury, wrote much in verse and prose. His work has not been preserved, and we only know of it through others.

BEDE.

We must hasten on to speak of the most notable of all Anglo-Saxon writers—of **Bede**, the famous author of the "*Ecclesiastical History, or History of the English Church*." Born in 673, Bede was brought up first in the monastery of St. Peter at Wearmouth, afterwards at the monastery of St. Paul at Jarrow-on-Tyne. He wrote much, and he wrote well; and in his history of the Church he included much that is of the deepest interest to all Englishmen who wish to know what their country was like twelve hundred years ago, and how men acted and thought in the days before Alfred was king. The works of Bede, which were written in Latin, have been preserved, and have been many times translated into English, so that all who desire can read them. That the writer himself was a man loved and honoured in his day we have clear proof. The story of his death is a well-known, but beautiful one, and so simply told that it will be well to repeat it here.

Four years before his death Bede finished his great history. He was then fifty-nine. Four years later he was engaged in writing a translation of the Gospel of St. John. He was at work in his cell at the monastery at Jarrow when his last illness overtook him. One of his pupils said to him: "*Most dear master, there is still one chapter wanting. Do you think it troublesome to be asked to answer any more questions?*" "*It is no trouble,*" said Bede. "*Take your pen, make ready, and write fast.*" Then a little later the pupil spoke once more: "*Dear master,*" said he, "*There is yet one sentence not written.*" He answered: "*Write quickly.*" Then said the pupil: "*The sentence is now written;*" and the master replied: "*It is well; you have said the truth—it is ended. Receive my head into your hands, for it is a great satisfaction to me to sit facing my holy place, where I was wont to pray, that I may, also sitting, call upon my Father.*" And thus, on the pavement of his little cell, singing "'Glory be to the Father, and to the Son, and to the Holy Ghost,'" he breathed his last, and so departed into the heavenly kingdom." Such is the story of the death of Bede written by his own pupil. It is told here because it is a beautiful story in itself, and because it shows us that we have now come to a time in English history when we can begin once more to picture men and women to ourselves as real people of whom

we know something, and can read accounts of what happened in the actual words of eye-witnesses. It was in the year 735, when Æthelbald was King of Mercia, that Bede died. The tomb, bearing the inscription which tells us that within it lie the bones of the "Venerable Bede," may be seen to this day in the venerable cathedral of Durham.¹

ALFRED AND ASSER.

If not the greatest, Bede is certainly the most important of English writers before the time of the Norman Conquest, because so much of what he wrote has been preserved and may still be read; but there are two other names which must certainly be mentioned in this chapter. In the first place there is that of **King Alfred** himself, who wrote many books both in Latin and in English, or *Anglo-Saxon*. He translated the Church History of Bede from the Latin into a language the people could understand; he translated a portion of the Bible, and he also turned into English a famous Latin book by a writer named Boethius. The book deals with religious subjects, and is meant to be a help to Christians in leading a good life.

Not less important, perhaps, than what Alfred himself wrote was the "*History of England*," which was begun by his orders and under his direction. This history is known as "*The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*," and in it were written down the events in each year as they took place. It begins with the history of the early Britons, but what it tells us of events which took place before the reign of King Alfred cannot be depended upon, as those who wrote it had no personal knowledge of the things they described; but from the time of Alfred "*The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*" becomes a really important record of the history of England. It was continued for many years, and the last event which is mentioned in it is the accession of Henry II. in 1154, two hundred and fifty years after the death of Alfred.

A word must be said of **Asser**, a Welsh monk of St. Davids (d. 910), for to him we owe "*The Life of Alfred*," from which most of the information about that great king has been gathered. There is no copy of the "*Life*," as Asser wrote it, in existence, but copies of the original made at a later date were preserved; and, though some alterations have no doubt been made, much of the old book has been kept.

There are a few other names which might be mentioned in this chapter if space permitted, but enough has been said to give an idea of how it is that we know anything of the events which took place in Anglo-Saxon England, and to whom it is that we owe our knowledge.

¹ The inscription runs thus: "Hæc sunt in fossâ Bædæ venerabilis ossa."

1867. SIXTIETH YEAR of Queen Victoria's reign celebrated.
 1861. Elementary Education made free.
 1857. Indian Mutiny. 1854-5 Crimean War.
 1857. QUEEN VICTORIA came to the Throne. 1852. The Great Reform Bill.
 1850. The First Railway Train.
 1800-1804. AGE OF EMPIRE. THE GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

1760. George III. came to the Throne.

1707. THE UNION WITH SCOTLAND.

1700-1702. Queen Anne came to the Throne.

1688. THE REVOLUTION.

1649. CHARLES I. beheaded.

1600.

1493. The SPANISH ARMADA defeated.

1588. QUEEN ELIZABETH came to the Throne.

1500.

1485. Battle of BOSWORTH, and death of Richard III.

1470. PRINTING introduced into England.

1453. CONSTANTINOPLE taken by the Turks.

1400-1415. Battle of AGINCOURT.

1379. Death of EDWARD III.

1346. Battle of CRECY.

1300-1314. Battle of BANNOCKBURN.

1200-1215. MAGNA CHARTA signed.

1170. Death of THOMAS ABECKET.

1100-1100. HENRY I. came to the Throne.

1086. DOMESDAY BOOK.

1066. THE BATTLE OF HASTINGS.

1000.

900-901. KING ALFRED died.

871. ALFRED THE GREAT became King.

800.

787. Landing of the DANES in Northumbria.

700.

644. NORTHUMBRIA converted to CHRISTIANITY.

600. 597 AUGUSTINE landed in Britain.

500.

455. HENGIST and HORSA defeated the Britons at Aylesford.

435. Separation of the English from the Welsh in BRITAIN.

435. ST. PATRICK preached in Ireland.

400. 410. ROME taken by ALARIC, King of the Goths.

380. Invasion of Britain by the SCOTS and PICTS.

300.

200. 211. Death of the Roman Emperor SEVERUS at York.

100. 121. The Emperor HADRIAN built a WALL across Britain to keep out the Picts.

A.D. 70. TITUS took JERUSALEM.

ANNUS 61. ROADICEA defeated by the Romans.

DOMINICAL. THE YEAR OF THE BIRTH OF CHRIST.

B.C.

65 JULIUS CÆSAR landed in BRITAIN.

OR OF CHRIST.

To face p. 104.

PART TWO.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST TO THE ACCESSION
OF EDWARD I.

1066—1272.

NOTE.

The second part of our History deals with the period of 206 years which elapsed between the landing of William the Conqueror at Hastings in 1066 and the accession of Edward I. in 1272. The time was one of great and far-reaching changes in England. The Normans who landed on our shores as foreigners and enemies gradually became mixed with the English whom they had conquered. The Norman kings ceased to be Norman, and began to rely upon their English subjects whom they had once despised, but whom they soon learnt to respect. The very speech of the people changed. While Norman-French ceased to be the language of the nobles, the people themselves learned to speak and write in a new language which, though it was English in the main, owed much to the tongue of the masterful conquerors. At length the distinction between Norman and English passed away altogether, and the kings of England became English in fact as well as in name.

Meanwhile, other great changes were taking place in the laws, habits, and thoughts of Englishmen. When we come to the story of Henry II. and Becket we shall learn how, in those days, the great struggle between the civil power on the one hand, and the Church on the other, had begun—a struggle which was to last for many years, and

was to have a great influence upon the history of our country. The story of Magna Charta is the story of the beginning of our laws, and of the foundation of our liberties. The life and death of Simon de Montfort carry us through the first years of our Imperial Parliament; and thus, when we come to the accession of Edward I., we find a real English nation, with its own language, its own laws, its own place in the world, strong enough to hold its position, and ready to risk its fortunes in war for the purpose of adding to its territory and strengthening its power. In the chapters that follow, we shall learn how England, in its new-found strength, plunged into war—a war which, with various changes and various fortunes, occupied the energies of the country for more than a hundred years.

CHAPTER XIII.

WILLIAM I.—THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1066-1087.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

William the First, called "William the Conqueror," Duke of Normandy, and King of England, b. 1027, became King of England, 1066, d. 1087

Robert, Duke of Normandy.

Matilda (of Flanders), wife of William the Conqueror, m. 1053.

Richard, son of William.

William (Rufus), son of William, afterwards King of England.

Henry, son of William, afterwards King of England.

Adela, daughter of William, m. Stephen, Count of Blois.

Lanfranc Archbishop of Canterbury, d. 1089.

Edgar Atheling, son of Edward, and grandson of Edmund Ironside a Saxon King of England, d. 1158.

Hereward (the "Wake"), a Saxon Noble, d. 1073.

Gregory VII., one of the greatest of the Popes, d. 1085.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

1066. Battle of Hastings.

1068. William defeats Edwin and Morcar.

1069. William takes York.

William defeats the Danes.

1070. Lanfranc made Archbishop of Canterbury.

1071. William defeats Hereward, and marches into Scotland.

1073. William defeats his brother Robert in France.

1083. Death of Matilda.

1086. Domesday Book, a list of all the lands in England, and their owners, completed.

1087. Siege of Mantes, and Death of William.

The Norman Conquerors.

*"Væ victis."*¹

WE read in Chapter X. an account of the great battle of **Hastings**, in which William the Norman, whom we know of in history as **William the Conqueror**,^{(1) 2} defeated Harold, King of England. We saw how Harold lost his life in the battle, and how William and his Normans gained the mastery. Battle Abbey, near Hastings, still stands to tell us of the victory which was won on October 14th, 1066.

Now we have to inquire whether the battle of Hastings, and the victory of the Normans, have left any other marks behind them in the history of our own country—marks which we can see with our own eyes and in our own time.

First, we must understand what was the condition of poor England after the defeat at Hastings. It was poor England, indeed. Its king had been killed and its best army cut to pieces. The English people themselves were divided into **Saxons** and **Danes**, who had only ceased fighting against each other a short time before. On the north, beyond the river Tweed, were the **Scots**, ever ready to carry war into England; and on the west were the **Welsh**, all that was left of the old **Britons** whom the Saxons had long ago turned out of their country. And now, in addition to all the troubles that came from Danes, from Scots, and from Welsh, there was an army of **Normans**, under their great Duke William, standing as conquerors on the shores of Sussex.

It was not for long, indeed, that William and his army stood still. No sooner had the day been won than the Normans pressed forward to London, and made themselves masters of the whole of the southern part of England. At first, William determined that he would try to put himself in the place of King Harold, and hoped that the English, now they had been beaten, would submit to him, and recognise him as their king.

It seemed as if what he hoped for were likely to take place. Many

¹ "Woe to the vanquished."

² The numbers in brackets following names refer to the genealogical table at p. 266.

of the English came and submitted themselves to him, and among them **Stigand**, Archbishop of Canterbury. An English archbishop, **Aldred** of York, was found ready to crown William King of England, at Westminster. When the great crowd of Englishmen who had come together from all parts were asked whether they would accept William for their king, they cried out, "Yea, yea!" And so it seemed that without any further struggle the country was about to fall into the

hands of a foreign king and a foreign army.

Those were dark days for England. Within the limits of the country there were people of four races—Saxons, Danes, Normans, and Welsh—all speaking different languages, and having different customs and different ideas. It is true that the Saxons and the Danes had at last become united, and that Canute and Harold had reigned over both Saxon and Dane alike, but the difference between Norman and English was one which seemed as if it could never be healed.



NORMAN AND SAXON ARMS.

William the Conqueror could not speak a word of English. He and his barons talked and wrote in Norman-French. The English whom he had conquered talked and wrote a language from which our English speech really comes, but which was so unlike it that few who read this book could understand it. This language was *Anglo-Saxon*.

Here is a passage taken from an old rhyme, and written in Anglo-Saxon. It is a puzzle to readers of modern English:—

"Mêrie sungen the muneches binnan Ely
 Ða Cnut ching reu Ðer by:
 Rowel cnites nœr Ðe land,
 And here we þes muneches sæng."

The verse in its English form is more familiar :—

“Merrily sang the monks of Ely
As Canute the king was passing by.
Row to the land, knights, said the king,
And let us hear these Churchmen sing.”

Norman and Saxon.

“It is to the stern discipline of our foreign kings that we owe not merely English wealth and English freedom, but England herself. And of these foreign masters the greatest was William of Normandy.”—J. R. Green : “History of the English People.”

Here, then, were two peoples living in the same country, hating each other, and neither of them understanding what the other said.

Soon matters were made worse, for William had brought over with him from Normandy a great number of greedy barons, who would not rest content until they had received as a reward for their services broad lands and estates in England. William was compelled to give great grants of land to his followers, and before he could give the lands to the Normans, he had, of course, to take them away from the English, to whom they belonged.

Naturally, this gave rise to great ill-feeling, and still further increased the hatred of the English for the Normans. Attacks upon the Normans by the English were common, and all such attacks were punished with great severity and cruelty.

An order was given that all Englishmen should put out their fires at sundown, and that they should remain within their houses after night-fall. A bell was rung to mark the hour when the fire was to be extinguished, and an iron hood or cover had then to be put over the fire by every English householder. This hood was called the “**Curfew**,” from a French word, “*couvre-feu*,” which means, “Cover the fire.”

The curfew bell, which was the signal for putting out the fires in the house, was for many a long year rung in almost every English town, and there are many places, such as Sandwich and Shrewsbury, where the old custom is, or was till very recently kept up, and the curfew still “tolls the knell of parting day,” although the hard law which the curfew bell gave notice of in the time of William the Conqueror has long since ceased to exist.

Soon the discontent of the English broke out into open war. The last descendant of the English kings was **Edgar Atheling**, grandson of Edmund Ironside. His name was one which was loved by the English, and more than ever loved now that he represented all that was dear to them, and all that had been taken from them by the Norman invaders.

Edgar Atheling does not seem to have been a man of great bravery



NORMAN SOLDIERS.

or skill, but his name brought him many supporters. The chief among them were **Edwin** and **Morcar**, Earls of Mercia and Northumberland. The earls made war upon William, in the hope of putting Edgar upon the throne. They called to their aid Welsh, Scots, and Danes. But they did not know the man they had to deal with in William. He was too quick for them. He attacked them before help could come from their allies, defeated them, and destroyed their army. Edgar himself fled to Scotland. This was the beginning of many battles fought between the Normans and the English.

The Normans built strong castles on the great roads and on the rivers, so as to keep the English in check, and to enable them to hold the lands which they had taken from their enemies. The English fought

bravely, but time after time they were beaten by the skill and strength of their enemies.

In one point the Normans had a great advantage over the English. They knew the value of discipline and good order in war. They had learnt the lesson which everybody has to learn before he can be successful in war, or in any undertaking which has to be carried out at the risk of life and involves danger—"that he who would command must first learn to obey." No army has ever been successful in which there has not been discipline, and in which men were not ready to give up their own opinions as to what is best to do, and to obey the orders of those who have been put over them.

It would be a long story to tell of all the fighting that took place in England, but one or two incidents must be recalled. The first shows how skilful William was in making use even of his enemies.

In 1073, seven years after the battle of Hastings, the king heard with alarm that his brother Robert in Normandy was threatening to take his duchy from him. He went over to France in great haste, and the army which he took with him was very largely made up of English soldiers, who, when they got into a foreign country, fought bravely enough against the enemies of the Norman king, whom they had so much reason to hate. With his English army William soon put down all his enemies in Normandy, and returned again to fight in England.

Now we come to the other incident which it is well to recall. After Edgar Atheling had fled into Scotland it seemed as if the last hope of the English had gone, for they were quite without leaders. But there was still one man who showed himself worthy of Alfred and Edgar. This was **Hereward**, the son of an English noble of Danish descent. He took up arms against the Conqueror, and resisted him with success for a long time.

At length, however, he was forced to take refuge in the Fen country around what is now the city of Peterborough. Protected by the impassable marshes, he defied the Normans. But William was not to be beaten. He had a number of flat-bottomed boats made, in which he placed his soldiers. He built a road, supported on wooden posts, or piles, two miles long through the marshes, and at last reached the English camp. Hereward's small forces were destroyed or taken prisoners, but Hereward himself managed to escape, and continued the war, landing from his ships upon the sea-coast and attacking the Norman towns.

At last, weary of pursuing his active enemy, or else thinking that he could no longer do harm, William made terms with Hereward, and gave him back his lands, and restored him to his former honours.

The English long cherished the memory of the brave soldier who had fought for their cause after all seemed lost; and the name of **Hereward the Wake**,¹ **England's Darling**, lived long in the hearts of his countrymen.

But despite the gallantry of Hereward, the Norman power gradually spread over the whole of England, and not only over England. Marching into Scotland and into Wales, William defeated first the Scots and then the Welsh, and spread terror wherever his name became known. Within five years of the battle of Hastings William was complete master of the whole of England.

King, Barons, and People.

"There never had been a moment from his boyhood when he² was not among the greatest of men."—*J. R. Green* : "*History of the English People*."

And now that we have seen what happened after the battle of Hastings, and how William became a king in fact as well as in name, it is time to inquire what the Conqueror did with the country he had conquered, and how he treated the people whom he had defeated.

It certainly appeared a very gloomy prospect for the English, and it seems wonderful that such great changes should have taken place since that time. We know that in our own day the differences which existed in William's reign have passed away, and that in England we have but one people, speaking one language, governed by one law, and under one Sovereign. We shall notice as we read on how these great changes came about. At first there seemed very little chance of any of them ever coming about at all, but really they were already beginning in a way which we can now see and understand.

We saw that William came over from Normandy accompanied by a great army of barons, all expecting to be paid for their services. They thought that because in Normandy they were nearly as great lords as their duke, and because they had done so much of the fighting under his leadership, they could make what terms they liked with William, and that they could compel him to give them

¹ "The Wake," meaning Awake, or Watchful.

² William the Conqueror.

whatever they wanted. But in this they were mistaken. William was determined that whatever he might be in Normandy, he would be a real king in England, and it so happened that things made it easy for him to gain greater power in England than he had ever had in Normandy.

In the first place, he very wisely said that all the laws of England should be kept. This meant, however, that they were to be kept when it was to his advantage that they should be kept, and that they should only be broken when it suited him.

Now, the English had been accustomed to make payments to the king and to the nobles for a great many purposes, and when William had killed their king, Harold, and taken away their land from their nobles, he declared that the payments which had been made to the king and to the English nobles should in the future be made to him only. This gave him very great sums of money, and money always gives power to him who has it.

Then, again, under the English kings there had been rules by which every town and district was compelled to send a certain number of men to fight the king's battles when called upon. William now said that as he was king these men should be sent to fight his battles; and thus he got an army besides the Norman army which he had brought with him. These English soldiers, though they did not love William much, hated the Norman barons more, and were always ready to support the king against his barons.

And lastly, the king, having taken their land from the English, gave a great deal of it to his followers. When he gave it he made a bargain with everyone who received land from him that he should give some service in return, and that this service should be the sending of a certain number of armed soldiers to fight under the king's orders in case of need. If this service were not paid, the land was to be forfeited.

Thus, in many ways, the king got great power into his hands; and when the Norman barons became, as they often did, dissatisfied with him, and thought they ought to have a greater share of land or money, they found they were quite unable to frighten the king into giving them what they wanted. The king was so much stronger than they were, that if they threatened him or made war upon him, he was sure to march against them, defeat their soldiers and burn their castles.

It is easy to see that the king himself, strong and powerful as he was, had to depend a great deal upon the conquered English, for they alone could enable him to put down the fierce Norman barons,

who all thought themselves as good as the king. And thus it came about that very soon the English began to look to William as their protector; and though they feared him very much, they found that greater justice was to be got from him, and from the judges whom he appointed, than from the savage barons who fought each for himself, and who did not care what injustice they did.

It was in France that William met with his death. He had gone over to make war upon the King of France. He marched to **Mantes**, a town not far from Paris, took the town, and burnt it to the ground. But as he rode through the burning streets, his horse, treading on a hot ember, started violently, and bruised the king. The injury proved fatal. William was carried to a monastery in Rouen, and there died on the 9th of September, 1087. He was sixty-one years of age, and had reigned as King of England twenty-one years.



CHAPTER XIV.

FEUDALISM.

What Feudalism Means.

"Hear, my lord: I become liege-man of yours for life and limb and earthly regard, and I will keep faith and loyalty to you for life and death, God help me."—A Vassal's Oath to his Feudal Lord.

WHENEVER we read the history of the English people and the early history of England, we are sure to come across the words "*Feudal*" and "*Feudalism*" very often. We shall find a great deal written about the "*Feudal System*." If these words were in common use now, it would not be necessary to explain what they mean, for we should often hear them, and should know what they meant; but the reason why many of us do not know what the words mean, is that the things which they describe are things of the past, and no longer familiar to those who live at the present day.

But there was a time when feudalism and the feudal system were very important matters in England, and we cannot possibly understand the past history of our country unless we know something about

them. This chapter, therefore, will be given up to explaining what feudalism means, and what the feudal system was.

We have seen how, when William the Conqueror came over to England, he defeated the English and took from them all their lands. We saw also how he rewarded his own followers, the Norman barons, whom he had brought over with him, by giving them a great part of the land which he had taken from the English.



A VASSAL DOING HOMAGE TO HIS LORD.

But William was a wise man as well as a great soldier. He had no intention of giving up the lands to his barons without getting back something in return for what he gave. We know that nowadays if one man has land which he "*lets*" to another, he expects to get in return a payment in money, which is called "*rent*." And in the same way, when one man lets a house to another, he expects

to receive *rent* either weekly, monthly, quarterly, or yearly, according to the agreement which is made.

But this was not the kind of agreement which was made between William and those to whom he gave the land. What he did was to say to his barons, "I will give you so much land over which you shall be lord and master; but if I do you must always give me certain *services* in return. In the first place, you must always be ready, whenever I go to war, to follow me and to fight for me; and not only that, but you must bring with you a certain number of armed men to fight my battles for me. You are to be *their* chief, but I am to be *your* chief and lord. The number of men whom you are to bring depends upon the size of the piece of land I give you, or upon the help which you have given me up till now.

"There are several things which you must do besides coming yourself to fight and bringing your men with you. *When my daughter is married*, you must pay a certain sum of money to me in order that I may be able to give her a good dowry or wedding gift. *When my son comes of age* and puts on his armour and becomes a *knight*, you must also pay me a sum of money. *If I am taken prisoner*, you must pay a sum of money towards my *ransom* in order that I may be set free."

These were the three things which the person to whom the land was given generally had to promise to do. They were called the three "Feudal Aids." Sometimes there were other things, but these were the commonest. The king who gave the land was called the "*feudal lord*," the land which was given was called the "*fief*," and the person who received it was called the "*vassal*," and was said to *hold his fief* from the king.

As a sign that he accepted the land on the conditions laid down, the vassal knelt before the feudal lord bareheaded and unarmed, and placed his hands in the hands of his *lord*, and then made his promise of obedience in these words:—"Hear, my lord: I become liege man of yours for life and limb and earthly regard, and I will keep faith and loyalty to you for life and death, God help me." Then the feudal lord kissed the vassal, and the vassal became the owner of the land, and after his death his son succeeded him.

The making of this promise by the vassal to the feudal lord, and the acceptance by the vassal of his land as a *fief* from the king as his feudal lord, was called "*doing homage*," and every vassal was called upon to do homage for the land which he held.

But the king was not the only feudal lord. Sometimes, as we know, a landlord lets a piece of land to another man, who is called his "*tenant*," and this tenant again lets it to a third person who

becomes tenant of the first tenant. In the same way it often happened that vassals of the king granted parts of their land to vassals of their own. These vassals had to make promises to their lord, just as he had had to make promises before to the king, and the vassals, in their turn, only held their lands as long as they performed the services which they had undertaken to perform.

But King William, and those who came after him, very soon saw that if they allowed their own vassals to have too many vassals under them, there would soon grow up a very strong party who would care little for the king, and a great deal for their feudal lords.

The kings of England, therefore, always made their *under-vassals* pay homage to them as well as to their feudal lords. In the same way, every man, whether he were a vassal of the king or an under-vassal, bound himself before all things to serve the king.

This plan of giving of lands in return for the promise of services was called the "**Feudal System**," and all through the early part of English history it was the way in which nearly all the land of England was held. When the king went to war, he sent notices to his great vassals bidding them come and bring their soldiers with them. They, in their turn, sent notices to their under-vassals to come with their men, and thus the king was able to get together a large army in a short time, sometimes as many as sixty thousand men.

The chief thing for which the Feudal System was started was to enable the king always to get a sufficient number of soldiers to fight his battles.

CHAPTER XV.

WILLIAM II., THE "RED KING."

1087—1100.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF WILLIAM RUFUS.

William II. (called "William Rufus"), third son of William the Conqueror, b. 1060, became King 1087, d. 1100.

Robert, Duke of Normandy, brother of William Rufus.

Henry, brother of William Rufus, afterwards King of England.

Adeia, sister of William Rufus, wife of Stephen, Count of Blois, mother of **Stephen**, afterwards King of England.

Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, d. 1089.

Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Edgar Atheling, son of Edward, and grandson of Edmund Ironside.

Gregory VII., Pope, d. 1085.

Urban II., Pope, 1088—1099.

Peter the Hermit (preached the Crusade).

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF WILLIAM RUFUS.

1087. William II. became King.
 1089. Death of Lanfranc.
 1091. Cumberland taken from the Scots.
 1093. Anselm made Archbishop.

1095. The first Crusade.
 1099. Westminster Hall built.
 1100. William II. shot in the New Forest.

The Sons of the Conqueror.

"If anyone would fain learn what manner of man the king was, let him know that he was of a square-set figure, with ruddy complexion and yellowish hair, and an overhanging brow; he had a shifting eye somewhat bloodshot; his strength was exceptionally great, and that despite his moderate stature. His stomach protruded slightly. Eloquence he had none, but had a marked stutter in his speech, especially when angered,"

William of Malmesbury: "Character of William Rufus."

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR had ten children. Of these we may name **Robert** ⁽²⁾, the eldest; **William** ⁽³⁾, who became King of England, and who is known in English history as **William Rufus**,⁽¹⁾ or "The Red"; **Henry** ⁽⁴⁾, who also became King of England; and a daughter named **Adela** ⁽⁵⁾, whom we shall hear of again, and whose son, **Stephen** ⁽¹⁰⁾, also became King of England.

We must remember that William the First was *Duke of Normandy* as well as *King of England*, and when he died, the question naturally arose as to who should succeed him as duke and as king. Robert, being the eldest, would have come first, and William himself declared that after his death Robert was to become Duke of Normandy. By the same rule which would have made him Duke of Normandy, he should also have become King of England.

But the three brothers had very little regard either for their father's wishes or for each other's rights. Robert's younger brother, William, came over in all haste to England; and immediately claimed the throne. He found plenty of supporters. Robert was the leader of the Norman barons, and the English, who hated the Norman barons, at once took sides against Robert, and with William. With the aid of the English, William succeeded in defeating the army of the barons, and in forcing them to acknowledge him as king.

Nor was he content with being King of England. Normandy had been left by William the Conqueror to his eldest son. But Robert was in want of money, and he had sold his right to the duchy to William. The king now hastened over to Normandy to take possession of the duchy which he had purchased. With the aid of his new English

¹ It is said that he got his name from his red complexion.

subjects, who were now seen following the banner of a Norman king, William obtained a complete victory; the Norman rebels were defeated, and Normandy as well as England was compelled to submit to the "Red King."

William Rufus, a fierce and cruel man, did little good to the country over which he was king, but his strength of will and his bravery soon made him undisputed master of England.



STONE MARKING THE SPOT WHERE WILLIAM RUFUS WAS KILLED.

One or two things still remain to remind us of his life and death. Like all the nobles of his time, the king was a great lover of the chase, and his cruel and selfish nature made him think little of ruining others to serve his own pleasure.

Great tracts of country were set aside as royal forests. In them no man was to live. They were to be given up wholly to the deer, the wolves, and the wild boars which the king delighted to hunt. To kill the king's game was a crime punishable with death.

One of the best known of the great forests thus set aside, or perhaps enlarged, by William Rufus was in what we now know as the county of Hampshire. To make this forest, the inhabitants were driven off thousands of acres of land, their houses were destroyed, and those who lived in them were turned out into the world to live as best they could.



ANCIENT BUTTRESSES OF WESTMINSTER HALL, NOW COVERED UP.

Everything has a beginning, and eight hundred years ago, in the time of William Rufus, this great royal forest was new. It was natural enough, therefore, to call it the "**New Forest**," and by that name it has been known down to the present day. When we take the train, and pass through the beautiful country which lies between Lyndhurst and

Christchurch, in the county of Hampshire, we may remember that we are passing through the *New Forest* which William Rufus helped to make.

This bad and selfish act has had a consequence which the man who did it could not foresee, but the act has been a fortunate one for us who live nowadays.



WESTMINSTER HALL.

In the time of the Norman kings, the crown land of England belonged to the king, just as any private person's park belongs to him now, and the king could do what he liked with it. But in the years which have gone by since the time of William Rufus, there has been a great change made in this respect. Land which belongs to the "Crown" now really belongs to the "People," and as it belongs to

all the people alike, they have a right to prevent private persons from enclosing it, or keeping people off it.

Anybody can now go freely throughout the whole of the New Forest, from end to end, and can enjoy the beauties of its scenery. No bit of land can be sold in the New Forest without the leave of a Minister appointed by Parliament; and thus, though we have little enough to thank William Rufus for, we may still thank him for the fact that, eight hundred years after his death, we are all able to enjoy a drive or a walk in the New Forest.

It was in this very forest that the king met his death (1100). He had gone out hunting and did not return. At last his body was found, pierced by an arrow, lying in the thick of the forest. It has never been known for certain whether the king was shot by accident, or whether he was murdered by someone who wished to avenge himself for the cruelties which had been done to those who had been turned out of their homes to make room for the wolves and for the deer. But that William Rufus fell by an arrow in the New Forest is certain.

Westminster Hall.

"It was the great hall of William Rufus, the hall which had resounded with acclamations at the inauguration of thirty kings, the hall which had witnessed the just sentence of Bacon and the just absolution of Somers, the hall where the eloquence of Strafford had for a moment awed and melted a victorious party inflamed with just resentment, the hall where Charles had confronted the High Court of Justice with the placid courage which has half redeemed his fame."—Macaulay: "Trial of Warren Hastings."

One other relic of the reign of William Rufus has come down to us. Everybody who has been in London knows **Westminster Hall**. It is the great hall which leads to the Houses of Parliament. It is very famous in our English history. Many important trials have taken place there, and many striking and memorable scenes are connected with it.

Till a few years ago the Courts of Law used to sit in a number of rooms which were built on the right-hand side of the hall. These rooms had been built a long time after the rest of the hall. They were very ugly and very inconvenient, and at last it was decided to pull them down and to make a new place for the Law Courts where they now stand, in the Strand, in London.

When the buildings were pulled down, underneath the walls were found a number of great buttresses, supporting the side of Westminster Hall. The buttresses were very old, and the stone was crumbling. It was plain that they were the very oldest part of the great hall. A clever architect was asked when they had been put up, and he said that they were part of the old wall which had been built by William Rufus. The stone of which the buttresses were made was so worn that it was not possible to leave them in the state in which they had been found. They were therefore strengthened, and covered up with fresh stone. But the shape of the old buttresses was kept, and we can still see them any day if we go down to Westminster. On preceding pages we see pictures of Westminster Hall and of William Rufus's buttresses.

CHAPTER XVI.

HENRY I.

1100-1135.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF HENRY I.

Henry I. (called "Beauclerc"), fourth son of William the Conqueror and brother of William Rufus, b. 1068, became King 1100, d. 1135.

Matilda, daughter of **Malcolm Canmore**, King of Scotland, wife of Henry, m. 1100, d. 1118.

William, son of Henry I., drowned 1120.

Matilda, daughter of Henry I., d. 1167.
The **Emperor Henry V.**, first husband of Matilda, d. 1125.

Geoffrey of Anjou, second husband of Matilda, m. 1127.

Robert, elder brother of Henry, Duke of Normandy, d. 1135.

Adela, sister of Henry.

Stephen of Blois, husband of Adela.

Stephen of Blois, son of Stephen and Adela, afterwards King of England, b. 1094.

Edgar Atheling, son of Edward and grandson of **Edmund Ironside**, taken prisoner 1106.

Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, d. 1109.

Edgar, King of Scotland, brother of Matilda, Queen of England, d. 1107.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF HENRY I.

1100. Henry seizes the Crown of England.
Henry grants a Charter of Liberties.
Henry marries Matilda.

1101. Henry acknowledged King of England by Robert.

1104. Rebellion of the Barons under Robert.

1106. Battle of Tenchebrai and capture of Robert.

Edgar Atheling taken prisoner.

1111. Henry marches into Wales, and plants a Flemish colony at Haverford-west, in Pembrokeshire.

1114. Matilda, Henry's daughter, marries the Emperor, Henry V.

1118. Death of Queen Matilda.

Revolt of the Barons.

1120. Wreck of the "White Ship".

1125. Death of the Emperor Henry.

1127. Marriage of Matilda to Geoffrey (Plantagenet), Count of Anjou.

1133. Henry, son of Matilda, afterwards Henry II. of England, born.

1134. Rebellion in Wales.

1135. Death of Henry I.

Englishmen and Normans.

*"By easy stages we may trace
Our Saxon-Danish-Norman-English race."*

WHEN William Rufus was dead, the question arose as to who should succeed him as **King** of England.

It must be remembered that William the Conqueror had four sons¹—**Robert** ⁽²⁾, **Richard**, **William** ⁽³⁾, and **Henry** ⁽⁴⁾—**Robert** and **Henry** now remained, after the death of their brothers. Robert was the elder, and ought, by rights, to have become king; but Robert's friends were mostly in Normandy, and Henry's were in England. With the aid of his English friends, Henry seized the crown and proclaimed himself king. He reigned for thirty-five years, and, on the whole, his reign was a good one.

It is not necessary to follow Henry into all the wars which he fought, in England and in Normandy, nor to trouble ourselves about quarrels which are long forgotten. The chief point we have to notice is that during his reign the mixing together of the Normans and the English really began, and that the king himself was foremost to set an example of friendship between his subjects.

We saw in the last chapter how the Norman Conquest had led to a great division in England—the Norman barons and their French followers on the one hand, and the defeated English on the other. Normans and English kept apart from each other; the Normans despising the Englishmen, and the Englishmen hating and fearing the Normans.

We know well enough that nowadays there is no distinction between Norman and English; they are one people, with one law and one language. The two peoples have become so mixed together that they are now really and truly one.

It was in the time of Henry the First that this mixing together of Normans and English first began. Henry, like William the Conqueror, saw very plainly that if he wanted to become a strong king, and to be able to hold his own against the Norman barons, he must make friends with the English, and look to them for support. In order, therefore, to obtain their goodwill, he decided to do a thing

¹ William I. had altogether ten children.

which at once won the hearts of his English subjects. He married **Matilda**, an English princess.

Who was this Princess Matilda? Let us see if we can trace back her history. In Chapter XIII. we read of a prince named **Edgar Atheling**, the grandson of **Edmund Ironside**. We saw how the hopes of the English were fixed on him as the last of their royal family, and how, despite the bravery of Hereward, he was at last forced to give in to the Normans. Edgar Atheling had a sister named **Margaret**, who had married **Malcolm**, King of Scotland. Malcolm and Margaret had a daughter, and this daughter was **Matilda**, who was now to become the bride of the Norman king. It was, of course, a great joy to the English that a true English woman, the niece of their own prince, Edgar Atheling, should be raised to the throne. But while the English rejoiced, the Norman barons could not hide their anger when they saw their duke take as his wife one of the people whom they despised, and whom they had so deeply wronged.

It soon became plain that Henry had done wisely in thus choosing his wife. It was no small thing to have won the goodwill of the English. They only wanted leaders, such as William the Conqueror and Henry, to make them some of the best soldiers in Europe.

And this the king's Norman enemies soon found, to their cost. A number of the barons, friends of the king's brother Robert, rose in revolt against the king. Then Henry called to his aid his English subjects, and marching against his enemies, won a complete victory over them. The English, who at last had an opportunity of revenging themselves on their Norman oppressors, fought gladly under the king's banner.

But though Robert's friends were the weaker, Robert himself still kept up the war in Normandy. Henry crossed the Channel, took Robert prisoner, and defeated his army at the battle of **Tenchebrai** (1106). Robert was imprisoned by his brother in Cardiff Castle, and remained in prison for the rest of his life. He died twenty-eight years after the battle of Tenchebrai. The capture of Robert allowed Henry to make himself master of Normandy.

We shall remember that Henry had married Matilda. His daughter was called "**Matilda**,"⁽⁷⁾ after her mother. While quite young, this little girl was married to **Henry the Fifth**⁽⁸⁾, **Emperor of Germany**. Besides his daughter, Henry had also a son named **William**, of whom he was very fond. He hoped that William would become king after his death; but this was not to be.

"The White Ship," and the Sprig of "Broom."

*"'Twas vain; the loud waves lashed the shore,
Return or aid preventing:
The waters wild went o'er his child,
And he was left lamenting."*

Campbell: "Lord Ullin's Daughter."

In the year 1120 the king was on his way back from Normandy, accompanied by his son. In one ship sailed the king, in another, called the "*White Ship*," was William, with a party of his friends. The king's ship started first on her journey, the "*White Ship*" followed. Her fifty rowers rowed with all their might to overtake the king's vessel. The prince and his companions made merry on board. Suddenly the "*White Ship*" struck on a rock and began to fill rapidly with water. A boat was lowered, and Prince William was placed in it.

It seemed as if he were saved, but as he left the side of the "*White Ship*" he heard the cries of his sister Mary, who had been left on board. The prince ordered the boatmen to return; but no sooner was the boat alongside the sinking ship than those on board the wreck sprang into the little boat. In a moment she was upset, and in a few minutes the whole of the gay company who had started that night from Barfleur was overwhelmed in the waves. One man alone, Berauld, a poor butcher, regained the shore.

Soon the news reached the English Court, but for a long time no one dared to tell Henry of his son's death. At last the terrible news was broken to him. The king was overcome with grief; not only did he lament the death of a son whom he dearly loved, but he foresaw that now that he had no longer an heir there would be no peace after his death. So great was the king's grief, that it is said that after hearing the fatal news he was never seen to smile again.

Although Henry had no son, we must not forget that he had a daughter, **Matilda**, who had been married to Henry V. of Germany. The Emperor Henry soon died, and left his young empress a widow. But she did not remain long unmarried, for she soon became the bride of **Geoffrey**,⁽⁹⁾ **Count of Anjou**. Anjou was a great province in France, of which **Angers** and **Tours** were the principal towns.

There is not much to be told in this story about Geoffrey of Anjou, but there is one thing which we may remember him by. We often in English history meet with the word "**Plantagenet**." King Henry II. ⁽¹¹⁾, Richard I. ⁽¹³⁾, John ⁽¹⁷⁾, and all the kings down to the accession of Henry VII. ⁽⁴⁸⁾, are spoken of as *Plantagenet Kings*, or kings of the *Plantagenet* family. What is the meaning of *Plantagenet*?



THE PRINCIPAL PROVINCES OF FRANCE.

The word is taken from the Latin *Planta genista*, which means the common "Broom" plant. Most of us know the common broom, with its bright yellow flowers. It happened that Geoffrey of Anjou was accustomed to wear in his helmet as a crest or sign a sprig of yellow broom. From this, people began to call him "**Plantagenet**," or the Wearer of the Broom. The Empress Matilda married Geoffrey

Plantagenet, and their son Henry became Henry II., King of England. And thus it is that Henry II. is known in English history as **Henry Plantagenet**.

In England it has always been the rule that the eldest son of the king or his children should come to the throne on the death of the king, and that if the king has no son or grandson, but only a daughter, then the daughter shall come to the throne and be queen. It is because of this rule that we have had several Queens of England—**Queen Mary**, the great **Queen Elizabeth**, and our own **Queen Victoria**. But in France there was a different rule from that which we have in England. This rule was called the "*Salic Law*." It prevented a

woman from coming to the throne of France, and so there have been no queens of France. As Henry I. had no son, after the death of William his daughter Matilda would have come to the throne after his death according to the English rule.

But England and France were so much bound together at that time that it was not wonderful that many people should have said that the



PLANTA GENISTA, A SPRIG OF "BROOM."

French rule ought to be followed in England, and that there should be no queen. There was one person who was very much in favour of the French rule, and this was **Stephen of Blois** ⁽¹⁰⁾, the nephew of Henry I. We need not go far to find out what was Stephen's reason for believing that the French rule was the best. If the French rule were followed, Stephen himself would become King of England, and his cousin Matilda would be prevented from coming to the throne.

Soon a fierce quarrel broke out between the friends of Stephen and the friends of Matilda, and the last years of Henry I. were made miserable by the constant quarrels among his relations.

King Henry died (1135) at the age of sixty-seven years, after a reign of thirty-five years. He was a wise king and a learned man, and his learning won for him the name of **Beauclerc**, or "The Scholar." Unluckily, the times in which he lived were times in which the sword had more power than the pen.

CHAPTER XVII.
 KING STEPHEN.
 1135-1154.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF KING STEPHEN.

Stephen , son of Stephen of Blois, and Adela, nephew of Henry I., b. 1094, became King 1135, d. 1154.	Henry , son of Matilda, afterwards Henry II., King of England.
Matilda , or Maud , daughter of Henry I., cousin of Stephen, and wife of Geoffrey Plantagenet.	David , King of Scotland, became King 1124.
	Innocent II. , Pope 1130.
	Adrian IV. , or Nicholas Brakespeare , the only English Pope, 1154.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF STEPHEN.

1135. Stephen crowned King in London.	1141. Matilda besieged at Winchester, and escapes.
1136. Stephen's title to the crown confirmed by Pope Innocent II.	Earl of Gloucester taken prisoner.
1138. David of Scotland invades England in support of the claim of his niece Matilda.	Stephen regains the Crown.
The Scots defeated in the Battle of the Standard.	1142. Escape of Matilda from Oxford.
1139. Matilda lands in England. Civil war commences.	1144. Stephen excommunicated by the Archbishop of Canterbury.
1141. Stephen taken prisoner by the Earl of Gloucester at Lincoln.	Quarrel with the Church.
Matilda enters London. [the city.]	1152. Henry, son of Matilda, marries Eleanor of France.
The Londoners drive Matilda out of	1153. Henry lands in England with an army.
	1153. Treaty of Wallingford. Stephen recognises Henry as his successor.
	1154. Death of Stephen.

A Miserable Reign.

"On the death of King Henry, who had given peace to the realm and was the father of his people, his loss threw the whole kingdom into trouble and confusion. During his reign the law was purely administered in the seats of justice; but when he was removed, iniquity prevailed and they became the seed-beds of corruption. Thenceforth, England, before the resting-place of right, the habitation of peace, and the mirror of piety, was converted into an abode of malignity, a theatre of strife, and a school of rebellion. The sacred bonds of mutual concord before revered by the nation, were rent asunder; the ties of near relationship were dissolved, and the people, long clothed in the garments of peace, clamoured and became frantic for war."—Acts of King Stephen.

THIS is going to be a very short chapter, about a reign in which the people of England went through great suffering and misery, a reign

which has left very little mark behind it, whether for good or for evil. It is the reign of **Stephen** ⁽¹⁰⁾, who came to the throne on the death of his uncle, **Henry I.**, in the year 1135, and who reigned nineteen years. During nearly the whole of Stephen's reign there was a fierce war going on in England between **Stephen** and his friends on the one side, and the Empress **Matilda**, the daughter of Henry I., on the other side. Sometimes one party gained the day, and sometimes



HARLECH CASTLE.

the other; but whatever happened, the unfortunate people of England suffered. The barons built great castles, where they lived safely behind their strong stone walls. From these castles they sallied forth to rob and plunder all those who were defenceless and who were worth robbing.

A terrible description has been given of the state of England at this time. This is what the writer tells us of the cruelties of the savage barons:—"They hanged up men by their feet, and smoked them with foul smoke. Some were hanged up by their thumbs, others by the head, and burning things were hung on to their feet. . . . They put men into prison where adders, and snakes, and toads were crawling, and so they tormented them." And the barons did many terrible things besides these, about all of which the writer of whom we have spoken tells us in his book. At last the great quarrel between Stephen and Matilda came to an end. A treaty was made

at Wallingford (1153). It was agreed that Stephen should be king as long as he lived, and that after his death, Henry, who was Matilda's son, should become king.

There is one more point to be noted with respect to this young Henry, of whom we shall read more in the next chapter. We said that, though **Geoffrey of Anjou** was not a very important person, we should hear something more of him in this book. Geoffrey, it must be remembered was the second husband of Matilda, and the father of the young Henry.

It was Geoffrey who carried a *Sprig of Broom* in his helmet, and who got the name of "*Plantagenet*." He was Geoffrey Plantagenet, and his son Henry was Henry Plantagenet. So we see that there was to be a change in the family from which the Kings of England came. Stephen was of the same family as William the Conqueror. He was his grandson; but when Stephen died his family ended, and another family came in, the family of the **Plantagenets**, and Henry was the first Plantagenet King. His mother, Matilda, was the granddaughter of William the Conqueror, but his father was a **Count of Anjou**.

Stephen died in the year 1154, having reigned eighteen years.



CHAPTER XVIII.

HENRY II.

1154-1189.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF HENRY II.

Henry II. (Henry Plantagenet), son of Geoffrey of Anjou and Matilda, and grandson of Henry I., b. 1133, became King 1154, d. 1189, reigned 35 years.

Eleanor of Aquitaine, wife of **Henry II.**, formerly wife of Louis VII. of France, m. 1152, d. 1204.

Henry, son of Henry II., d. 1183.

Richard, son of Henry II., afterwards King of England.

Geoffrey, son of Henry II., d. 1186.

John, son of Henry II., afterwards King of England.

Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury, d. 1161.

Thomas A'Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury 1162, murdered 1170.

Frederick Barbarossa, the great Emperor of Germany, who quarrelled with Pope Alexander III., d. 1190.

Pope Adrian IV. (Nicholas Brakespeare), the only Englishman elected Pope, d. 1159.

Pope Alexander III. 1159.

Malcolm IV., King of Scotland, d. 1165.

William the Lion, King of Scotland.

Roger Hoveden, of Howden, in Yorkshire, wrote the history of these times, d. 1201.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF HENRY II.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1154. Henry II. becomes King.
 1155. Pope Adrian IV. gives Henry leave to invade Ireland.
 1156. Henry defeats his brother Geoffrey and makes him resign his claim to Anjou.
 1157. Expedition into Wales.
 1160. Henry collects a tax from every vassal, under the name of "<i>scutage</i>."
 1161. Death of Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury.
 1162. Peace with France.
 Two rival Popes elected in the same year.
 Thomas A'Becket made Archbishop of Canterbury.
 1163. Beginning of quarrel between Henry and Becket.
 1164. <i>Constitutions of Clarendon</i>.
 Becket's flight.
 1165. Malcolm IV., King of Scotland dies.
 The Welsh defeat an English army at Corwen.
 1168. Dermott McMurragh, King of Leinster, does homage to King Henry.</p> | <p>1169. Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, lands at Waterford.
 Meeting between Henry and Becket at Montmirail, in France.
 1170. Becket returns to England.
 Becket excommunicates his enemies.
 Henry expresses his anger against Becket.
 December 29th, murder of Becket.
 1171. Henry lands near Waterford, and receives the submission of the Irish Princes.
 John, son of Henry, made <i>Lord of Ireland</i>.
 1173. William the Lion King of Scotland, taken prisoner near Alnwick.
 1174. Burning of Canterbury Cathedral.
 1183. Death of Henry, son of the King.
 1188. War with the King of France.
 1189. Richard and John, the King's sons, join his enemies.
 William the Lion, King of Scotland, released.
 Death of Henry II.</p> |
|--|---|

Canterbury Cathedral.

". the architect
Built his great heart into these sculptured stones."

Longfellow: "The Golden Legend."

I WANT my readers to come a short journey with me. We will start from Victoria Station in London, and will take tickets by the express train on the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway. In about an hour and a half the train stops. We are at **Canterbury**. We alight, and a short walk brings us to the door of the great cathedral of Canterbury, the Metropolitan Church of England.

Let us pause for a moment before we enter, and look at the wonderful building, with its three towers, its graceful windows, and its beautiful carving. It must have been a famous architect who built Canterbury Cathedral. Who was he? Does history tell us anything about him? Yes, certainly it does; and, unfortunately for our pride as Englishmen, history tells us that it was no countryman of ours who planned the greater part of the stately church.

The greater part of the cathedral of Canterbury as we now see it was built in the year 1174. A short time before, there had been

a great fire, and part of the old building (for Canterbury Cathedral was old 700 years ago) was burnt to the ground. It was necessary to find a good architect to do the work. At last it was decided to employ a Frenchman, named William, who came from the town of **Sens**, in the North of France, and who is generally known as **William of Sens**. Now we know who the architect was and where he came from, we shall not be surprised to learn another thing about the cathedral. Canterbury Cathedral is a most beautiful building, as everyone who has seen it knows; but beautiful though it be, it is not the only church of its kind in the world; there is another like it.

If, instead of stopping at Canterbury station we had gone on in the train to Dover, had crossed over the English Channel to Calais, and had taken the train through the



CANTERBURY CATHEDRAL.

north of France, we should have come, after a long journey, to the town of **Sens**. There we should see another cathedral, not quite so beautiful, perhaps, as the one at Canterbury, but still very much like it. Many parts of it, indeed, are exactly the same as parts of our English cathedral; the shape of the windows is the same, the carvings are the same. It is plain that either Sens has been copied from Canterbury, or Canterbury from Sens.

Now that we know who it was that planned the chancel of Canterbury Cathedral, we can easily guess that it was Canterbury which was copied from Sens, or, rather, that William of Sens, when he was brought over to work in England, thought the best thing he could

do was to repeat at Canterbury the beautiful work he had done in his own country.

Before we go inside the cathedral, let us stop to ask whether there is anything else which we already know about it. We must carry our minds back into the history of England even further than the time of William the Conqueror.

We must go back to the very beginning of our history, to the days when **Augustine**, the Roman bishop, came into our land, and taught to the Saxon people of Kent the story of Christ. It was to Canterbury that Augustine came, and it was there that, by permission of King **Æthelbert**, he built the church which was to become the centre of all the Christian churches of England.

From the time of Augustine down to our own day, the city of Canterbury has been the home of the archbishops of the English Church. It is the story of one of the greatest of these archbishops that we are now going to read.

And now let us go inside the doors. We walk up the long nave,¹ go up a few steps, and turn to the left into a little chapel at the side.

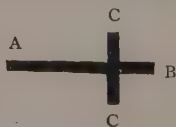
Let us stop here for a moment, and if we have a knowledge of English history, and especially of that part of English history which has to do with the cathedral



THE CATHEDRAL OF SENS.

(From a photograph by E. Doutenvill, Paris.)

¹ The "nave" of a church is the part marked A. The part marked B is called the "chancel." C C are the "transepts."



of Canterbury, we shall most certainly give a thought to a terrible event which once took place upon the very spot on which we now stand.

For here, in the very midst of the great cathedral, was committed a savage and dreadful murder, which seven hundred years ago startled all Europe, and which filled the people of England with wonder and alarm.

What is this terrible story? Whose blood was it that was shed here? And who were the men who did this violent deed within the walls of the cathedral itself? That is what we are now going to read.

The King and the Archbishop.

*"Law in his voice and fortune in his hand,
To him the Church, the realm, their powers consign;
Through him the rays of regal bounty shine,
Turned by his nod the stream of honour flows,
His smile alone security bestows:
Still to new heights his restless wishes tower,
Claim leads to claim and power advances power,
Till conquest unresisted ceased to please,
And right submitted, left him none to seize."*

Johnson: "Vanity of Human Wishes."

When, to the great joy of all men, King Stephen died, there followed him on the throne of England a king whose name ought not to be forgotten by those who read the history of England. This king was **Henry II.**⁽¹¹⁾, the son of Matilda, and the cousin of Stephen. He came to the throne in the year 1154, and reigned thirty-five years. He was a man of great courage, wisdom, and strength of mind. Like most other men, he had many good, and at the same time many bad, qualities. His reign was one of great difficulty and trial, and though he was successful in many things, and overcame many of his enemies, he had great disappointments, and died defeated and miserable.

There is not room in this book to tell the whole story of the long reign of Henry II., so we will content ourselves with that part of it which has to do with Canterbury Cathedral and its great archbishop.

But first, let us try and understand what sort of a man King Henry was. Even though he lived so long ago, we can picture him to ourselves, for those who knew him well have left us an account of his appearance which tells us almost as truly as a photograph what the king was like.

A man rather above middle height, square, and solidly built, and rather stout. His head was round and well shapen, his short reddish



BISHOP AND BARONS IN THE TIME OF THE NORMANS.

hair sprinkled with grey. His face was fiery, or, as a more polite writer of his time describes it, "lion-like." His eyes were grey, but often rather bloodshot. He was short-necked and square-chested, his hands were coarse and clumsy. Such was Henry II., as drawn by those who saw him from day to day.

And now we come to the other great personage of his reign. In the year 1118 there was born a child called **Thomas Becket**, or **Thomas A' Becket**. Thomas's father was a Norman by birth, and came from the town of **Rouen**, but he had lived long in England, and had become so good an Englishman, and was so much liked by his neighbours, that

he had been made *Port Reeve*, or, as we should now call it, Mayor, of the City of London.

Thomas soon showed signs that he was a clever boy, and his cleverness won for him the friendship of **Theobald**, Archbishop of Canterbury. He became a priest, and was sent by the archbishop on several important journeys to Rome. Soon he attracted the attention of the king, who was struck by his cleverness and by his agreeable character. It was not long before he received from Henry a great mark of his favour, for he was made **Chancellor**, or Keeper of the King's Seal: an office of great dignity and importance.

Many stories are told of Thomas A'Becket and his life at this time. He lived in great luxury, keeping hundreds of servants and many horses, and rivalling the king himself in the splendour of his house. During this time King Henry and Becket agreed together well enough—so well, indeed, that King Henry, not content with making his favourite Chancellor, raised him to the still higher office of **Archbishop of Canterbury**. From that day there came a change, and enmity arose between the king and the archbishop, which only ended in the death of the latter.

In order to understand how it was that King Henry and Thomas A'Becket quarrelled, and how it was that the archbishop came to lose his life as the result of the quarrel, we must try and understand something of what was going on in England at the time in which Henry and Becket lived.

The days of Henry II. were days in which much violence and cruelty were practised by those who were strong against those who were weak. The Norman barons, living in their strong castles and clothed in suits of armour, cared little for the sufferings of the poorer and worse-armed people among whom they lived. The king himself was wiser than the barons. He knew that he would be stronger if he did justice to all, and did not give himself up altogether to the wishes of the barons. He tried, therefore, in many ways to make laws which should do justice to everybody in the kingdom. But though he often wished to do well, it was not always easy even for a good king in such a time to protect the poor and the defenceless.

There was, however, another great power in England beside the king and the barons, which we must know something about if we want to understand rightly the history of England. This power was the power of the **Church**. It was felt not only in England, but in France, in Germany, in Italy, and in Spain. At the head of the Church was the **Pope** in Rome, and in England there were the **archbishops**, the **bishops**, and the **clergy** in all parts of the country.

In many ways the Church was very different then from what it is now. It was the Churchmen¹ who alone opened schools, who taught people how to read and write; and, indeed, there were very few except the clergy who could read or write at all. All over England there were great abbeys and monasteries, in which there lived priests, monks, and nuns. In these abbeys and monasteries books were to be found and teaching was to be got.

Nor was this all. In many of the churches there was a place called a *Sanctuary*, to which anyone who was in danger of his life might fly, and in which he was safe from harm. At a time when so much injustice was done, and when so many cruel men used their power to injure the weak and defenceless, it was a great thing to have places to which those who were persecuted could go, and in which they could be safe. In an age, too, when there was so much ignorance, it was a good thing that there should be men who could teach reading and writing, and who could prevent the learning of all the wise men who had gone before from being forgotten.

And last of all, but most important of all, it was a good thing that in the midst of so much violence and cruelty there should be men and women who tried to teach the difference between right and wrong, between good and evil, and who kept England a Christian land. It is not wonderful, therefore, that when the Churchmen did all these things, they should be looked upon with favour and treated with honour.

But, unluckily, it often happens that too much good fortune spoils men. The clergy became so great and so powerful that many of them forgot that it was their duty to help and protect the poor against the strong. And not only did the clergy get strong, but they soon got very rich, and many of the abbeys and monasteries had lands of great extent; and thus it happened that in the time of Henry II. the Church of England did both harm and good. When it protected the poor, taught those who were ignorant, and set an example of a holy life, it did good. When it joined with the king and the barons to try and get riches and power, or when it tried to get power for itself, it did harm.

¹ It should be understood that in the time of Henry II. a "Churchman" meant not only a priest or clergyman, but anyone who was in any way in the service of the Church. Monks, clerks, teachers, and often the servants of a church or monastery, were called "Churchmen," and had the right to be tried in the bishop's Court. The fact that a man could read and write was often held to be proof that he was a Churchman. We must remember these things in order that we may understand what is said in this chapter.

The Quarrel.

"Ye take too much upon you, ye sons of Levi."

Numbers xvi. 7.

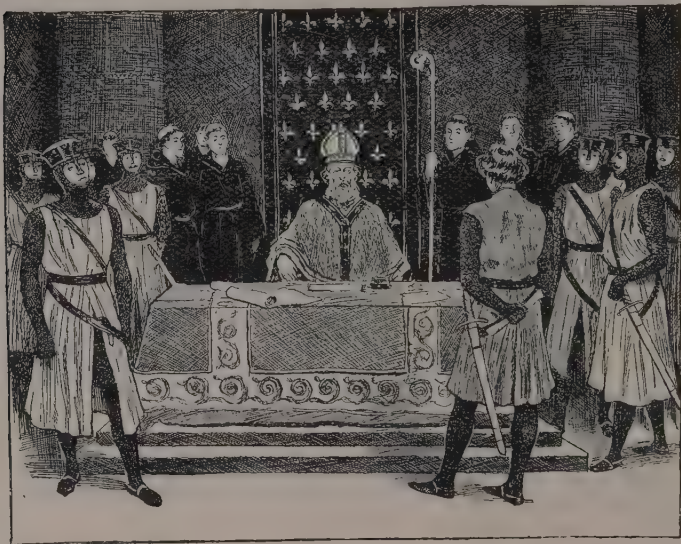
And now we come back to the day on which Henry II. made Thomas A'Becket Archbishop of Canterbury, and put him at the head of the Church we have been talking about. We have seen that while he was Chancellor, Becket was gay and fond of pleasure, a friend of the king, and ready to share with him in all his sports. But from the very day on which Becket was made Archbishop of Canterbury it seemed as if a change had come over him. From that day he gave up all his time to trying to strengthen the Church, to give it more power, and to make it free from all interference, on the part either of the king or of the barons.

It was not long before the new archbishop and the king found cause for a quarrel. The Church at that time claimed that all clergymen, and everybody who was connected with the Church in any way, should only be tried, in case they committed offences, by judges belonging to the Church. They said that the king's Courts, in which persons who had committed crimes were usually tried, had no power over those who belonged to the Church, and that the king's judges had no right to try Churchmen. Now, it is easy to see that there was sure to be a quarrel before long over this claim made by the Church to set up its own judges, and to have its own courts of justice.

We saw that Henry was doing his best to improve the Courts of Justice in England, and to appoint **Judges** who would do justice to all alike. When the king's Courts decided against any man who was accused of a crime, they were able to punish him. And so also when two persons who had a dispute came before the king's Courts to have their case tried, the one who was declared to be in the right was able to make the other give up his claim, and do what the Court said was just.

But when King Henry found that Becket would not allow Churchmen to be tried by the judges, he was angry; for he said that every man, rich or poor, Churchman or not, ought to be equal in the king's Courts and obey the order of the judges. Becket, on his side, would not give way, and refused to allow Churchmen to go into the king's Courts.

There was also another cause of quarrel between the king and the archbishop. Many of the bishops and other clergy had great quantities of land. We read in Chapter XIV. that in feudal times every man who had land had to "*do homage for it.*" Henry said that the Churchmen ought to do "*homage*" to him for their land; Becket said that they should not do so. Then Henry called together a meeting of the barons, and he made a set of rules or laws. The place



A BISHOP'S COURT IN NORMAN TIMES.

at which the meeting of the barons was held was called **Clarendon**, and the rules that were made there were known as "**The Constitutions of Clarendon**" (1164). One of these rules was that Churchmen should be tried in the king's Courts when they had committed crimes. Another was that all Churchmen should do homage to the king for their lands.

It is not easy now, so long after these things happened, to say whether Henry or Becket was in the right. In those days things were very different from what they are now. The judges whom the king appointed were not always just, nor did they always know the law. Sometimes, no doubt, justice was better done in the courts in which

the bishops were the judges than in the king's Courts. Besides, it must be remembered that it was no new thing which Becket fought for, for at the time in which he lived the courts held by the Church were to be found in every country in Europe, and in every country Churchmen had the right to be tried and condemned only by Churchmen.

Of course, in our own time it would be quite wrong for Churchmen to refuse to be judged in the same courts as other people. In our own time, happily, the judges are just; they know the law, and they do justice equally to all men, rich or poor, whether they be Churchmen or whether they be not. If we can find excuses for Thomas A'Becket, we certainly ought not to blame Henry because he tried to make all people equal before the law.

But though it may be doubtful whether Henry or Becket was most in the right, one thing is certain, and that is that the king and the archbishop soon quarrelled with one another. In his anger, the king banished Becket from the land. The archbishop fled to the town of Sens, in Normandy.¹

After a time Henry and Becket became friends again, and Henry gave Becket leave to return to England. Becket crossed over, leaving Henry behind in France. When the archbishop came to Canterbury, thousands of people came out to welcome him back. The poor people looked upon him as their friend and protector against the barons. When Henry heard of the way in which Becket had been welcomed back, he flew into a great rage. He could not bear that a man who had been his enemy, and who had dared to disobey him, should be so beloved.

In his anger, Henry broke out into wild, hasty words. His eyes flamed and his face grew pale with passion. "*What!*" cried he, "*a fellow that has eaten my bread has lifted up his heel against me—a fellow that I loaded with benefits; dares insult the king and the whole royal family, and tramples on the whole kingdom—a fellow that came to Court on a lame horse, with a cloak for a saddle, sits on the throne itself, and no man interferes? What sluggard wretches!*" he cried, "*what cowards have I brought up in my Court, who care nothing for their duty to their master! Not one will deliver me from this low-born priest!*"

We cannot tell whether the king really wished that someone should take him at his word. We sometimes make hasty speeches and say things which we hope others will act upon, though we dare not act upon them ourselves; and then, when others have done the harm

¹ It was here that Becket met with William of Sens, who, we saw, came over to England, and rebuilt a great part of the cathedral of Canterbury, in imitation of his own cathedral at Sens.

which we wished, but were afraid to do, we try and pretend to ourselves that it is not we who are to blame. And so, perhaps, when Henry, in his anger, cried out, "Not one will deliver me from this low-born priest!" he half hoped that some of those who stood by would take him at his word, and commit a crime which he was ashamed and afraid to commit himself.

It happened that there stood among the king's courtiers four knights—**Hugh de Morville, William de Tracy, Richard le Bret, Reginald Fitzurse.**¹ The four knights overheard the king's words, and it was not long before they had formed a cruel plot to murder Becket, and thus to "*deliver*" the king from the "*low-born priest*."

Two reasons joined together to urge them to commit this crime. In the first place, no doubt they loved the king a little, for he was their lord, and they depended upon his favour. In the second place, they hated Becket far more than they loved the king. When he had been Chancellor, Thomas had despised the fierce barons, and had enjoyed the favour of the king. Since he became archbishop he had made many of the barons give up the lands which they had taken from the Church, and he had often helped those whom the barons had oppressed.

And so it happened that the hasty words of King Henry had fallen into the hearts of men who wanted no persuading to kill the king's enemy. Mounting their horses, the four knights rode off at full speed to the sea-coast. There they took ship across the Channel, and on a cold dreary day at the end of December, 1170, they came within sight of the three great towers of Canterbury Cathedral.

We now come to the story of the terrible deed which they did on that wintry day within the walls of the great cathedral.

¹ Fitzurse means "Son of the Bear," a name which well suited the savage Norman knight to whom it belonged. The English home of the Fitzurses is called to this day **Bear-ham**, or the village of the Bears. Some of the Fitzurses crossed into Ireland, and there their name took an Irish form, and they became the founders of the well-known family of the **MacMahons**—MacMahon meaning in Irish exactly the same as Fitzurse in Norman: viz., "*the Son of the Bear*."



The Murder.

"Where is the Archbishop, Thomas Becket?"

"Here.

*No traitor to the King, but Priest of God,
Primate of England. I am he ye seek.*

What would ye have of me?"

"Your life."

Tennyson: "Becket."

It was late in the evening of the 29th December, when the winter's night was already setting in, that the dwellers in the archbishop's palace were suddenly alarmed. A crash was heard as the wooden door of the orchard outside was broken down, and soon it was known by all that the archbishop's enemies were outside, longing to get in, and to take the life of the man whom they hated.

Many of the monks who surrounded Becket fled like cowards at the approach of danger. Some few stood by their master, and did all they could to get him to take refuge in the cathedral. Within its walls they thought he would be safe. But, great as the danger was, Becket scorned to fly. He walked calmly along the passage which led into the cathedral. Before him walked an attendant bearing the cross, which was always carried before the archbishop.

At last, however, the frightened monks could no longer bear the slow pace at which the archbishop advanced, and they half-dragged and half-carried him into the cathedral. They shut the door and turned the key. Soon cries were heard outside. It was the four knights and their friends, who were driving before them the friends of the archbishop, and who were seeking to find their way into the cathedral.

When Becket heard the cries of his own friends outside, he bade those who were with him throw open the door, in order that those who were in danger might escape from the fury of the knights. But this brave act cost the archbishop his life. No sooner had the door been thrown open than Fitzurse and his companions rushed in.

Then all but the bravest fled from the archbishop's side, and he was left alone with but three faithful friends: **Robert of Merton**, his old teacher; **William FitzStephen**, his chaplain; and **Edward Grim**, a Saxon monk. With these three Becket reached the little chapel on the left-hand side of the cathedral, of which we read at the beginning of this chapter, and there the four murderers found him.

It was nearly dark, and at first the knights could not see Becket. "*Where is Thomas Becket, traitor to the king?*" cried one of them. Then Fitzurse exclaimed, "*Where is the archbishop?*" Becket knew the voice. "*Reginald, here am I,*" said he: "*no traitor, but the archbishop and the priest of God. What do you wish?*" As he said these words he advanced towards Fitzurse, who sprang back.

The four knights then began to upbraid Becket, and to bid him



KING HENRY'S PENANCE.

undo the harm that he had done. "*I cannot do other than I have done,*" replied the archbishop. "*Reginald, you have received many favours at my hands; why do you come armed into my church?*" For answer, Fitzurse placed his axe against Becket's breast, saying, "*You shall die!*"

Another of the knights struck him with the flat of his sword, and told him to fly, or he was a dead man. "*I am ready to die for God and the Church,*" was the archbishop's answer. Then the knights fell upon him, and tried to drag him outside, for they feared to kill him in the church. But Becket was a strong man, and resisted their efforts.

There was a fierce struggle, and at last Fitzurse, mad with passion, cried out, "*Strike! Strike!*"

Then Becket saw that death was near. Fitzurse struck off his cap. Tracy aimed a blow at him with his sword, and wounded the brave Grim, who strove to defend his master. The same blow which struck down Grim wounded Becket, and the blood began to flow. Then the knights attacked him fiercely with their swords, and he fell dying on the floor of the chapel. A last blow on the head put an end to Becket's sufferings, and the murder was completed.

The four murderers ran hastily out of the cathedral, and after plundering the archbishop's house rode off unharmed.

Thus died Thomas A' Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, within the walls of his own cathedral. What became of the murderers is not certain. Some say that they went on a voyage to Jerusalem to do penance for their sins. Others say that they all of them died by some shameful death. But it seems as if they were really received back into favour again by the king, and that they were never punished for the crime they had committed.

What Henry thought of the cruel murder of his enemy remains to be told. The news was brought to him in France, and he received it with every sign of the deepest sorrow. Whether or not he really wished that Becket should be killed we do not know, but now that he was dead the king was overcome with remorse.

As a sign of his grief, he went to do penance at Canterbury. Barefooted, and without his royal robes, he walked to the cathedral, attended by a crowd of bishops and monks, with whom were many of his own courtiers. Kneeling before the tomb of Becket, he bade each of the bishops scourge him on his bare shoulders. Then throwing himself down upon the tomb, he lay there all night without food.

Such is the story of Henry and Becket. It is a story which should be remembered, because it shows how great a power the Church was in the early days of our history, and how even the strongest kings sometimes found their match among the archbishops and bishops of the Church.



The Pope's Gift.

"Adrian the bishop, the servant of the servants of God, to His most dear Son in Christ, the noble king of England, sendeth greeting and apostolick benediction. . . . we do grant that you do enter to possess that land,¹ and there to execute according to your wisdom whatsoever shall be for the honour of God, and the safety of the realm.

"And further also do we strictly charge and require, that all the people of that land do with all humbleness, dutifulness, and honour, receive and accept you as their liege Lord and Sovereign."

From the Bull of Pope Adrian IV. to Henry II.

One or two other things which happened in the reign of Henry II. must not be forgotten. Henry was successful in his wars in Wales, in Scotland, and in Ireland. He defeated the **Scots**, and **William the Lion**, the Scottish king, was taken prisoner while leading an army into England.

Ireland was at this time divided among many kings and chieftains and its people were split up into numberless tribes, who were always fighting one against the other, and constantly plundering each other's lands. Henry thought that the time had come to make himself master of Ireland in fact as well as in name, for ever before his time the Kings of England had claimed to be *Lords of Ireland*. He therefore gave leave to some of the Norman barons to conquer Ireland for him. He found help in a strange quarter. The **Pope**, who at that time was supposed to have the right to give away lands that were not under any regular king, wrote a paper, or "*Bull*," as it was called, in which he "gave" Ireland to Henry.

The Norman knights, under **Strongbow**, Earl of Pembroke, landed at Waterford, in the south-east corner of Ireland, and made themselves masters of a large part of the country near the coast. From that time forward the English power increased in Ireland, and the Kings of England were known as **Lords of Ireland**. It was not, however, till many years later that the whole island submitted to English rule.

Although Henry had been great and powerful during his reign, and though he had been victorious in so many wars, his life ended in misery and defeat. His enemies in France took up arms against him, and when he hurried over to lead his armies he found that among his enemies was his own son, **John** ⁽¹⁷⁾. The defeat of his army and the treachery of his son broke down the old king's spirit, and he died an unhappy death at Chinon, in France, in the year 1189, and the 56th year of his age.

¹ Ireland.

CHAPTER XIX

RICHARD CŒUR DE LION.

1189—1199.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF RICHARD I.

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| <p>Richard I. ("Cœur de Lion") second son of Henry II. and Eleanor of Aquitaine, b. 1157, became King 1189, d. 1199.</p> <p>Berengaria, daughter of the King of Navarre, the wife of King Richard, m. 1191, d. 1230.</p> <p>John, son of Henry II., brother of Richard, afterwards King of England.</p> <p>Philip Augustus, King of France, d. 1223.</p> | <p>Leopold, Duke of Austria, a leader of the Crusade, d. 1194.</p> <p>Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, who governed England in Richard's absence, d. 1205.</p> <p>Roger Hoveden, who wrote the history of this time, d. 1201.</p> <p>Robin Hood, the famous outlaw of Sherwood Forest, is supposed to have lived during this reign.</p> |
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PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF RICHARD I.

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| <p>1189. Richard I. becomes King of England.</p> <p>1190. Richard starts on a Crusade.
Richard relieves Acre.</p> <p>1191. Richard marries Berengaria.</p> <p>1192. Richard makes peace with the Saracens.</p> | <p>1192. Richard imprisoned by Leopold of Austria.</p> <p>1193. Hubert Walter, Justiciar.</p> <p>1194. Richard ransomed for £100,000.</p> <p>1199. Richard killed at the siege of Chalus.</p> |
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The Crescent and the Cross.

*"Richard, that robb'd the lion of his heart
And fought the holy wars in Palestine."*

Shakespeare: "King John."

THE next two chapters give an account of two brothers: **Richard**⁽¹³⁾ and **John**⁽¹⁷⁾. Both brothers are remembered in English history, but for very different reasons. There was, indeed, a great difference in their characters and their lives.

Richard spent nearly all his reign outside England; John stayed in England. Richard was famous for his generosity, for the victories which he won over foreign enemies, and for his bravery in war. **John**, though, no doubt, also a brave man, is remembered as a cruel and

unwise king, who was defeated in his own country by his own people. And yet it is true to say that we who are alive now owe more to John's defeats than to Richard's victories.

Richard was the first King of England of that name; he is therefore known as **Richard I.** He is also known by another name, which those who lived in his time gave him, and by which he is still called to this day. His friends and enemies were agreed in calling him *Richard Cœur de Lion*. "*Cœur*" is the French word for "heart," and **Richard Cœur de Lion** means "**Richard of the Lion Heart**," or "The Lion-hearted." We may ask why a King of England should have a French name, but we shall cease to wonder when we understand that Richard was really just as much a Frenchman as he was an Englishman.

It will be remembered how the Dukes of Normandy became Kings of England, and how after the time of **Stephen** the Princes of **Anjou** reigned in their stead. Now, as we all know, both Normandy and Anjou are in France, and the Norman and Angevin¹ kings were really quite as much French as they were English. They had lands and castles in France as well as in England, and they probably talked French much more easily than they talked English. We can therefore understand why Richard came to be called "*Cœur de Lion*" instead of "The Lion-hearted."

Richard was a man of very great strength, bold as a lion, and a terrible enemy to meet in battle as he rode on his great war-horse, clad in armour, and swinging his battle-axe round his head. He loved nothing so much as war and fighting, and he lived at a time when everyone who was fond of fighting could easily get as much as he wanted. But most of the fighting which Richard did was done far away from England, and brought little profit to our country. How was it that a King of England came to be fighting so far away from his own land? This is how it befell.

It happened that two years before Richard I. came to the throne, the country which we know as **Palestine**, or the Holy Land, had been invaded and taken by the **Turks**. The Turks were not Christians, but believed in a man called **Mahomed**, who they said was the *Prophet of God*. From the name of Mahomed they took the name of *Mahomedans*, and at the time of which we are speaking they were a very great and warlike people. Wherever they met the Christians, they fought against them, and when they were victorious they took the lands of the Christians, and made those they conquered declare that they believed in Mahomed instead of

¹ "Angevin" means "of or belonging to Anjou."

in Christ. Those who refused they either put to death or made slaves of.

We have learnt that the Turks had taken Palestine, and, as we all know, the capital of Palestine is **Jerusalem**, the city built by David, and in which Jesus Christ was crucified. It is not hard to understand that Christian people were sorry when they saw the city of Jerusalem fall into the hands of the Turks, and there were many of them who were determined that the Turks should be turned out of it if possible, and the Christians put back there again. But this was more easily said than done, for the Turks were a brave and warlike people, and for a long time it seemed more likely that they would conquer the Christian people of Europe than that the Christians would conquer them.

The Crusade.

*"High deeds achieved of knightly fame,
From Palestine the champion came;
The Cross upon his shoulder borne,
Battle and blast hath dimmed and torn.
Each dint upon his battered shield
Was token of a foughten field."—Scott*

Already the Christians had tried their best to beat the Turks. In the year 1094, nearly one hundred years before Richard became king, and long before the Moslems had re-taken Jerusalem, there appeared in Europe a man who not only had made up his mind that the Turks should be turned out of the Holy Land, but that he himself would be the first to lead on the Christians to the fight.

The name of this person deserves to be remembered. He was called **Peter**. He was one of those priests who at that time were known as "*Hermits*"; that is to say, he lived apart from all men in a solitary dwelling, and gave himself up to prayer and reflection. For this reason he is known in history as "**Peter the Hermit.**"

It was in the year 1095, in the reign of William Rufus, King of England, that Peter the Hermit first called upon the kings and princes and peoples of Christian Europe to give up all their work and all their pleasure, and if need be their lives, to the task of beating the Turks and defending Jerusalem. He went about from place to place, preaching and exhorting the people to follow him. In his hand he bore a cross, and he bade all those whom he addressed prepare to leave

all they had and fight for the cause of the Cross, which was the sign of the Christian religion.

It is for this reason that we speak of Peter the Hermit as being the first to preach a "*Cross-ade*," or, as we usually call it, a "**Crusade**"; that is to say, a war on behalf of the Cross.¹ In all parts of Europe the people responded to the call of Peter the Hermit, and rich and poor, high and low, armed themselves, and made ready to sail eastwards to the Holy Land, to fight for the cause of the Cross and for the recapture of the Holy Land.

No doubt the reasons which moved the minds of the Crusaders were very various. Some went because they loved adventure and fighting; others went in the hope of obtaining power or plunder; and lastly, there were very many who truly believed that in thus fighting against the Turk they were serving the cause of Christianity, and doing a right action. Of such we must speak with respect; for whether we think they took a wise course or not in thus going forth to fight on behalf of the cause in which they believed, we must at least admit that they risked their lives and their fortunes and gave up their comfort to fight for what they believed to be right.

The kings and princes of Europe were foremost to join the ranks of the Crusaders, and for the first time, princes who had been engaged in long rivalry at home were seen fighting side by side against a common enemy. Among the kings who came forward as leaders of the Crusade, none was more famous or more active than Richard of England. The adventure and the danger which accompanied this war, fought in a strange country against an Eastern enemy, were just what his bold spirit loved.

The history of Richard's valiant deeds in Palestine, of the great battle which he fought at **Jaffa**, of his attack upon **Jerusalem**, and of his quarrels with his companions, the King of France and the Archduke of Austria, may be read in any history of England. Perhaps the pleasantest way of learning something about them is to take up Sir Walter Scott's great novel, "**The Talisman**." It is a most delightful book, and no one can read the stories of Richard, of Saladin the Sultan of the Turks, of Edith Plantagenet, of Berengaria, Richard's wife, of Kenneth of Scotland, and of the crafty Duke of Austria, without pleasure.

But we need not give up much time to following Richard in his

¹ The Cross was the sign of the Christians, and all who went on the Crusade wore a cross on their flag, on their shield, or on their breast. On the other hand, the Mahomedans had for their sign the Crescent, such as we can see nowadays upon the flag of Turkey. The wars of the Crusade are, therefore, sometimes spoken of as the "*Wars of the Crescent and the Cross*."



KING RICHARD LANDING IN PALESTINE.

far-off Eastern battles, for the victories which he won and the courage which he showed, are not of much importance to the history and progress of the English people. What is really important to notice is not what Richard did when he was away from England, but what those whom he had left behind in England did during his absence. So occupied was the king with the Crusades, and so frequently was he engaged in fighting battles in France to preserve his French dominions, that the time which he spent in England was very short indeed.

It is an old proverb which says, "When the cat's away the mice will play"; and there is no doubt that when the strong hand of the king was taken away, the nobles and barons whom he had left behind found a good opportunity for strengthening themselves and preparing for a struggle against the king himself. We shall see in the next chapter what use the nobles and barons made of the power which they got into their hands, and we shall then have no difficulty in understanding how it was that King Richard's love of adventure, and his distant expeditions, did really make a great difference to the history of England, and to us who now live in the country.

It seems at first sight as if the battles fought by Richard Cœur de Lion under the walls of Jerusalem have little to do with the lives of those who read this book at the present day; but when we come to read the story of Magna Charta, to understand what it was, and how it was obtained, we shall then see that the two things have more to do with one another than we supposed.

On his way back from Palestine Richard passed through the country of his enemy, **Leopold**, Archduke of Austria. By an act of treachery, which even in those rough times was condemned by all men, Richard was seized by order of the duke and thrown into prison. For twelve months he lay in prison, and it was long before his friends in England even knew where he was.

The story is that his whereabouts were discovered by his old friend and companion, the musician Blondel, who, roaming through Europe in search of his master, sat down under the wall of an unknown castle, and touching his harp, sang a tune which he remembered as being a favourite one with his royal master. Richard, from his prison, hearing the familiar air, recognised his friend and played an answering note. Blondel took the news back with him to England, and in course of time a ransom was paid, and Richard was restored to his country and his throne.

But his restless spirit would not allow him to remain long at ease. He started off again to France to fight against **Philip**, who threatened

his Norman possessions there. While besieging the castle of Chaluz he was struck by an arrow from the bow of a soldier named Bertrand.

As he lay in his tent dying, the king was informed that the castle had fallen, and that Bertrand had been taken prisoner. The unhappy archer was brought before the king, trembling for his life, but Richard, with the generosity which was perhaps the best part of his nature, forgave the man to whom he owed his death, and ordered that his life should be spared. Unfortunately, those who served the king were not as kind as their master, and Bertrand was cruelly put to death. But the incident should be remembered, as one that does credit to the king.

CHAPTER XX.

JOHN—THE HISTORY OF THE CHARTERS.

1199—1216.

FAMOUS PEOPLE WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF JOHN.

John, King of England, youngest son of Henry II. and Eleanor of Aquitaine, and brother of Richard I., b. 1166, became King 1199, d. 1216.

Isabella of Angoulême, the second wife of John, married 1200.

Henry, son of John and Isabella, b. 1207, afterwards became Henry III., King of England.

Arthur, Duke of Brittany, son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, grandson of Henry II. and Eleanor of Aquitaine, and nephew of John, murdered 1203.

Innocent III., Pope 1198—1216.

Philip Augustus, King of France, d. 1223.

Louis, son of Philip, who joined the English Barons against John, d. 1226.

Hubert Walter, Archbishop of Canterbury, d. 1205.

Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury, d. 1223.

Pandulph, the Pope's Legate in England, d. 1226.

Alexander II., King of Scotland, son of William the Lion, married Joan, daughter of King John, d. 1249.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF JOHN.

1199. John becomes King.

1200. John marries Isabella of Angoulême.

1202. War with France.

1203. Capture of Arthur.

Death of Arthur.

1204. Loss of Normandy. [bury.

1205. Death of Hubert, Archbishop of Canterbury. Stephen Langton made Archbishop by Pope Innocent.

John appoints John de Grey, Bishop of Norwich, to the same post.

John quarrels with the Pope.

1207. Henry, afterwards King Henry III., born. [the Pope.

1208. England laid under an *interdict* by

1210. John lands at Dublin, and establishes English law in Ireland.

1211. John exacts money from the monasteries and from the Jews.

Expedition of the King into Wales.

Pope Innocent declares John deposed

John attacks Louis of France and the hostile Barons with success.

1211. John makes submission to the Pope.

Langton recognised as Archbishop.

1213. John does homage to the Pope as King of England and of Ireland.

The Barons refuse to follow John to France.

Langton summons a council of the Barons.

1214. Defeat of an English and a Flemish army at Bouvines by the French.

John renews his illegal exactions in England.

1215. The Barons assemble at Brackley.

War between the King and the Barons.

June 15, Magna Charta signed.

John appeals to the Pope, who excommunicates the Barons.

1216. The Barons offer the Crown to Louis, son of the King of France, who lands in England.

Destruction of John's army in crossing the Wash.

Death of King John.

John and Arthur.

KING JOHN—“*Why seek'st thou to possess me with these fears?
Why urgest thou so oft young Arthur's death?
Thy hand hath murder'd him: I had a mighty cause
To wish him dead, but thou had'st none to kill him.*”

HUBERT—*No had, my lord! Why, did you not provoke me?*

KING JOHN—*It is the curse of kings, to be attended
By slaves, that take their humours for a warrant.”*

Shakespeare: “King John.”

WHEN the news of King Richard's death reached England there were confusion and disorder on every side. There were two claimants to the throne. One was strong and the other was weak. Right was on the side of the weak, but, as too often happens, Might was on the side of the wrong. The law by which the Kings of England succeeded to the throne was the same then as it is now: the eldest son came first, then his children if he had any. If the eldest son had no children, then the second son succeeded, and the second son's children. After the second son and his children came the third son. It was only when neither the eldest nor the second nor the third son had children that the fourth son could lawfully come to the throne.

Now let us remember how things stood at this time. **Henry II.**,⁽¹¹⁾ of whom we read in Chapter XVIII., was the father of Richard I. Henry had four sons. **Henry**⁽¹²⁾ the eldest, was dead and had left no children. **Richard I.**⁽¹³⁾ was the second; he had become king and was now dead: he also left no children. The third was **Geoffrey**,⁽¹⁴⁾ who had married **Constance**⁽¹⁵⁾ of Brittany. He too was dead, but had left a son, named **Arthur**⁽¹⁶⁾, Duke of Brittany, who, at the time of Richard's death, was only a boy of eleven. By the law and custom of England, Arthur should have become King of England on the death of his uncle Richard.

But we saw that Henry II. had *four* sons. The youngest of these was **John**,⁽¹⁹⁾ a cruel, hard, clever man, who could not bear to see the throne of England go to a boy, and he made up his mind that, if he could prevent it, that boy should never sit on the throne of England. So it is not hard to see how, when the news of Richard's death reached England, there were all the makings of a quarrel. On the one hand were the friends of Arthur, who was king by “*right*,”

on the other were the friends of John, who were determined that he, and not Arthur, should be king by "*might*."

The story of the death of Arthur is a melancholy one. Those of us who have read Shakespeare's great play of *King John* will remember how John, the cruel uncle, threw his nephew into prison, how he sent one of his followers, Hubert by name, to burn out the boy's eyes, and how Hubert, touched by the boy's pleadings, refused to obey the cruel order of the king. How John, fearing the anger of the English, took Arthur away, and shut him up in a French prison, and there, as it was believed, slew him with his own hand.

There is a proverb that "Ill-gotten gains never prosper"; and even at a time when fighting never ceased, and when murder was common, John's violence and lawlessness had made him many enemies. Many of the barons, who, during Richard's long absence, had strengthened themselves, had built strong castles, and had got together small armies of followers, now appeared in arms against the king.

Nor were the barons without friends among the people. King John, a cruel and rapacious man, made enemies both among the rich and among the poor. From the barons and nobles he took large sums of money, and tried to deprive them of their lands and their rights. The poor he treated with cruel injustice, and those who had money he robbed without mercy, in order to fill his own coffers. John thus united against him the hatred of all classes among the people, and it soon became clear that there was to be a trial of strength between him and his many enemies, in which one side or the other must be beaten.

What Charters were, and How They were Won.

*"Littera scripta manet."*¹

Now that we know who King John was, and when he lived, it is time to turn our attention to the great event which happened in his reign, and on account of which the name of King John will always be remembered. The great event I speak of is the signing of **Magna Charta**. Most of us have heard the words "**Magna Charta**," but to hear words used is not always the same thing as to understand what they mean. Let us inquire, therefore, first, what the words mean; and secondly, what is the thing which they describe

¹ A Latin maxim meaning, "The written word endureth,"

"Magna" and "Charta" are both of them Latin words. "*Magna*" means "great," and "*Charta*" (sometimes written "*Carta*") means a "Charter," or written statement of rights. The particular Charta of which we are speaking is called the "Great Charter," because, though there were many other charters in English history, this one is the greatest and most important.

We may ask, why should a Latin name be used? The answer is that at the time when the Great Charter was made, or granted, by King John, all important writings were in Latin. The Bible used by the clergy was in Latin; the histories and chronicles which were written by the monks were in Latin; and all the laws of the country were in Latin.

Very few people in the time of King John could read or write at all, but those who could read and write all learnt Latin. This was a great convenience in some ways, for Englishmen, Frenchmen, Italians, and Germans, who were quite unable to understand each other's languages, could always talk or write in Latin, and thus make themselves understood in any country.

Now that we know what the words *Magna Charta* mean, it is time to ask what the Charta was, how it came to be granted in the time of King John, and why it is that Englishmen have always given it so important a place in the history of their country. To understand these things we must go back to the story of King John; and, indeed, we must go back even further than the time of King John, to the reigns of the kings who preceded him.

It will be remembered that in an earlier portion of this book, we learnt how William the Conqueror made himself master of all the land of England, and how he gave part of it to his own followers as a reward for their services. We saw, too, how, in order to keep down the powerful nobles, by whom his authority was threatened, he called upon the conquered English to help him against the barons. The English did help him, and so strong were the king and the people together, that the king, with the aid of the English, soon got the upper hand, and became master of the barons.

The next thing we saw was that first William the Conqueror, then William Rufus, his son, and in turn all the other kings who came after them, led their armies into France or Scotland or Wales, and fought battles against the French, the Scots, and the Welsh. In order that they might fight these battles, two things were needed—money and soldiers. By the custom of the time, and by what was called the *Feudal law*,¹ the king had the right to call upon his nobles to

¹ See page 114.

follow him to war, and to bring a certain number of soldiers with them. He also had the right to demand the payment of fixed sums of money by the barons. In the same way he had the right to take money from the citizens of the towns, and to call upon each town to send a fixed number of soldiers.

But it is not hard to understand that at a time when laws and customs were often disregarded, and *might* was often more powerful than *right*, there were many disagreements between the king and those who were called upon to furnish men and money. The wars in France, and the Crusades in Palestine, soon swallowed up all the men and all the money, and then the king had to find a way of getting more. If the king were very strong, and the nobles or the citizens from whom he wished to get men or money were weak, then the plan was simple enough. The king said what he wanted, and if it were not given to him he took it, and punished those who dared to refuse him.

But sometimes it happened that the king was not strong enough to take what he wanted by force, and then he had to bargain. For instance, if he demanded men and money from some powerful baron who was strong enough to keep what he had got, and to hold his castle against the king's troops, the king had to make some promise of future favours to induce his unruly subject to do what he desired.

One of the commonest ways in which the barons took advantage of the king's needs was as follows. The king's promise was written down on parchment, and the **Charter**, or written record of his promise, was kept as a proof to all people that the rights which were mentioned in it had really been granted.

The same thing happened in the cities and towns, especially as they grew rich and populous. The king wanted money or men, the town had both money and men, but was in no hurry to give them away. "I want the aid of my loyal citizens," wrote the king. "Your loyal citizens will be quite ready to give you the aid you desire, but——"; and then the citizens, through their mayors or sheriffs, used generally to say that if the king would be pleased to give them the right to *build a bridge*, and *take a toll* from all the king's subjects who crossed over it; or if the king would allow them for ever afterwards to *appoint their own judges and try their own disputes* without any interference from the king and his successors, then they, the citizens, would be very happy to give the king what he wanted.

Perhaps, if the king were strong enough to take what he required, he marched a troop of soldiers into the town, threw the mayor and the chief citizens into prison, for daring to try and make a bargain

with him, and kept them in prison till the money was paid and the men were provided.

But there were often reasons why the king thought a bargain the shortest way of getting what he wanted. He had already, perhaps, many enemies, and did not want to make more. It was easy to make promises for the future so long as he got what he wanted at the moment; and, besides, it was always easy to make a present of what really belonged to someone else. And so in many cases the bargain was struck, and the terms of the bargain were written down in a *charter*, which was duly signed and sealed, and kept among the city records.

Thus in the time of King John, the town of **Nottingham** agreed to pay a large sum of money every year for the right to appoint and elect its own Port-Reeve or Mayor, and its own magistrates, and in the time of Henry II. the town paid some more money to the king, who promised that in return all the citizens of Nottingham should be free to buy and sell in any market in England.

This was a great advantage, for, as a rule, those who had goods to sell in a market were made to pay a tax or toll before they were allowed to sell anything. The promises which were made to the people of Nottingham by William the Conqueror and Henry II. were written down on parchment and sealed with the king's seal, and these very parchments are still kept among the charters of Nottingham.

There are many of these ancient charters preserved to the present day, and they may be seen in the great public libraries in London, Oxford, and other places; and also in the British Museum in London. The **City of London** became at a very early date in our history the most powerful and important of English cities, and the citizens of London were among the first to use their power and their riches to obtain charters from the king. Each new charter which they received made them stronger than before, and enabled them to get better terms from each king in turn.

But it is easy to understand that in such troubled and warlike times as the days of William the Conqueror, Henry II., and John, a parchment writing, however carefully signed and sealed, was not always a certain protection.

It was easy for kings to make promises when they were weak; it was almost equally easy for them to break them when they became strong again. And so it often befell. Time after time we find that the kings broke faith, and failed to keep the promises which they had made, and which were written down in the charters. Then

the struggle had to begin over again, and be continued until the king was compelled to "confirm" the charter, or to grant a new one in its stead.

The Signing of the Great Charter.

*"Magna Charta was signed by John,
Which Henry the Third put his seal upon."*

Old Rhyme.

We saw how the Norman kings with the help of the conquered English, had got the better of the barons. No sooner had they done so than they began to demand from the barons men and money beyond what the feudal laws and customs allowed them to take. When the barons were weak, as in the time of William the Conqueror and William Rufus, they gave what they were asked for. When, in their turn, the barons became strong and the king weak, they either refused the aid altogether, or gave it on condition of their receiving something in return.

As early as the reign of Henry I. we read of a charter being given by the king to the barons and people. King Stephen was also obliged to grant a charter which was full of promises which he had very little intention of ever performing. We have already seen that Henry II., who came after Stephen, was a great and powerful king, and, having the English on his side, he soon became more than a match for the barons. Indeed, the king had by that time become so powerful that neither the barons nor the people alone could resist his will successfully.

At last the barons saw that if they were to stand against the king at all, they must follow the example which William the Conqueror had been the first to set, and must get the people to join with them. As long as they fought only for themselves and for their own advantage, no one was likely to help them, and they were at the mercy of the king. But they soon saw that, by joining their own cause with that of all the people, they would be able to win success.

It was in the reign of King John that the barons thought the time had come for standing up once for all for their rights. It was not wonderful that they should think so. In the first place, John was a violent and cruel man, always ready to take by force what he

could not obtain fairly. In the second place, John was engaged in quarrels both at home and abroad.

Abroad he had begun a war against the King of France. At home he had quarrelled with the clergy; and, in order to carry on his wars, he had made great demands upon the barons, and upon the people, for money and men. What he could not get as a gift he



RUNNYMEDE.

took by force, paying no attention to the rights of his subjects, nor to the promises which had been made by his father and his great-grandfather.

It is easy to understand why John made many enemies. The **Clergy** hated him because he refused to obey the orders of the Church, and because he brought in foreign priests whom he set over the heads of the English clergy. The **Barons** hated him because he took their lands, broke the promises made in their charters, and brought

in foreigners to whom he gave some of the richest lands in the kingdom. The **People** hated him because he robbed them of their money, treated them with cruelty, and broke the laws.

At last the king's enemies would submit no longer, and they joined together in arms to fight against him. The barons met at **Brackley** in Northamptonshire (1215). At their head were **FitzWalter**, **William Marshall**, and **Stephen Langton**, Archbishop of Canterbury, the wisest and most famous of them all. They sent a message to the king, and told him plainly that they would no longer allow him to break the law and to overlook their rights. They threatened that, unless he would give a solemn promise in writing to observe their rights in the future, they would make war upon him and drive him from the throne.

The barons were wise enough to get all the help they could against the king. Many nobles from all parts of England joined them, and the Mayor and citizens of London sent word to them to say that the Londoners were on their side. The messengers found John at Oxford; they came before him and told him what were the demands they had been ordered to make. "*These are our claims,*" said they, "*and if they are not instantly granted, our arms shall do us justice.*" The fury of the king was terrible. "*And why do they not demand my crown also?*" cried he. "*I will not,*" he continued, with a great oath, "*I will not grant them liberties which will make me a slave.*"

But the barons were not to be terrified, or driven from their purpose. They at once declared themselves to be "*the army of God and His Holy Church,*" and sent to all parts of the kingdom to call people to their aid. First there came a message in reply from London, saying that the Mayor and citizens were on the side of the barons, and then from all parts there poured in lords and knights, and friends of every degree. It is said that only seven knights remained with the king. Then John saw that, for the time at any rate, he could not resist, and he therefore agreed to meet the barons.

The meeting took place in a field by the side of the river Thames, not far from Windsor. The king came from **Windsor**, the barons from **Staines**. If we take a boat and row down the river from Windsor, we shall come to a broad meadow, about three miles from Windsor Bridge. It has a name which is very famous in English history; it is called **Runnymede**. It was at Runnymede that the Great Charter was agreed to by King John in the presence of the barons. (June 15, 1215.)

And now it may be asked, Why has this long chapter been given up to the story of Magna Charta, and of the other charters which went before it? What is this Great Charter, and why is it so famous?

The answer to the first part of the question is, that if we have carefully read and properly understood all that has been said in this chapter, we shall understand how most of the laws and liberties of England were obtained in the early part of our history. What the Great Charter was, and why it is so famous, we shall see in the next chapter.



CHAPTER XXI.

WHAT THE GREAT CHARTER DID FOR ENGLISHMEN.

An Englishman's Rights.

*"Only law can give us freedom."*¹—Goethe.

Magna Charta, which was sealed by **King John** and the **Barons** at **Runnymede** on the **15th June, 1215**, is a long paper or parchment containing **Forty-nine Articles** or divisions.² At the foot of the parchment are the seals of the king and of the barons.

We know exactly what **Magna Charta** was like, for we can actually see a copy of it at this very day at the **British Museum**. There were probably several copies made, and this is one of them. The Charter was written in **Latin**, as almost all laws and charters were at that time. It contained, as we have already learnt, **forty-nine clauses** or paragraphs.

Of these **forty-nine clauses**, only a very few are of much interest to us nowadays. The reason for this is easy to understand. The barons who made **King John** sign the Charter, did not pretend to be making a set of new laws. What they did was to write down clearly the laws and customs which they declared the king had broken, and which they wished to make him keep and observe in the future. A great many of these laws and customs had to do with things which

¹ "Das Gesetz nur kann uns Freiheit geben."

² Afterwards increased to sixty-three.

were very important at the time, but which have ceased to be important in our own days.

For instance, a great many of the clauses of the Charter speak of the **feudal rights** of the nobles. Others had to do with the **rights of the towns**, some clauses gave **permission to merchants to travel freely**, and to carry on their business without interference, and some had to do with less important matters.

All these things mattered very much at the time, for the "*Feudal law*" was the law under which the barons lived. The feudal law has now been done away with, and is nearly forgotten. At that time the people in the towns had often hard work to protect themselves against the king or against the nobles. Nowadays all the people of England, whether in town or country, live under the same just laws, so there is little need for those parts of the Charter which have to do with the towns.

It is the same with many other clauses. So many things have changed in England, that the clauses no longer matter very much to us who live nearly seven hundred years after the time of King John. For these reasons we can leave out those parts of the Charter which are no longer important, and can turn our attention to the parts which are best known, and which really make a difference even in the present day.

The following are the clauses, or **Articles**, as they are called, of the Charter, which we ought specially to remember :—

Article 40. "To none will we sell, to none will we refuse, to none will we delay, **Right and Justice.**"

Article 17. "The Court of Common Pleas shall not follow the King's circuit, but shall be held in a certain fixed place."

Article 18. "We,¹ or if we are absent from the kingdom, our Chief Justiciary, shall send four times a year into each County, two Judges who . . . shall hold the Assizes at the time and place appointed in the said County."

Article 39. "No Freeman shall be arrested, or imprisoned, or dispossessed of his tenement, or outlawed, or exiled, or in any wise proceeded against, unless by the legal judgment of his Peers, or by the Law of the Land."

Article 20. "No Freeman, Merchant, or Villein,² shall be excessively fined for a small offence; the first shall not be deprived of his means of livelihood; the second of his merchandise; the third of his implements of husbandry."

It would not be a bad plan to learn these Articles by heart; it

¹ "We" means the king.

² Villein, *i.e.*, husbandman.

would be well worth while; and we ought to try to understand clearly what they mean. This is not difficult, for they are most of them written in plain language.

Let us take them in order, and see what they mean and how far they concern us.

Article 40. "**To none will we sell, to none will we refuse, to none will we delay, right and justice.**" Such is the promise made by King John on behalf of himself, and of those who were to come after him. It is well that such a promise should have been solemnly made to the people of England so long ago. Without justice to all alike, a country can never prosper. It had been the practice of King John, as it is still the practice of rulers in some parts of the world, to give judgments in favour of those who paid money for them: in other words, to "*sell justice.*" Sometimes the judgment was delayed for months and years, so that the person who sought justice, and who had right on his side, was kept out of his rights all his life. King John promised that for the future, justice should never be "*delayed.*" So, too, he promised that it should never be "*refused*" to those who asked for it.

These were great promises to make, and if they had been faithfully carried out, it would have been much better for England, and those who lived in it. Unfortunately, John himself was the very first to break these solemn promises which he had made, and many of the kings who came after him forgot or neglected the 40th Article of the Great Charter, and allowed justice to be *sold*, to be *refused*, and to be *delayed* to their subjects. But, thanks to the Charter, every king who acted thus, knew that he was doing wrong, and breaking the law which he had promised to keep. It was a great thing to have this right rule always there to point to, and to fight for.

And now, happily, in our own time, we have very nearly got all that King John promised, for it can truly be said that in England, justice is never *sold*, that it is never *denied* to any man, rich or poor, high or low. It is true that justice is still sometimes *delayed*, and that it often takes a man a long time to get a judgment as to what are his rights; but every year more is being done to make going to law easier, and to make it possible for every man to have a judgment on his case in a short time.

The Judges of Assize.

"In the first class I place the judges as of the first importance. It is the public justice that holds the community together."—Burke.

But it was no use promising to give justice to all men, if there were no way in which justice could be done, and in which the rights and wrongs in any case could be heard.

In order that justice shall be done there must be judges. To provide the judges, Articles 17 and 18 were put into the Charter. In the time of King John all justice was supposed to be done by the king himself, and as, of course, he had not time to try all the cases that arose, he used to appoint judges for the purpose.

Wherever the king went, the judges followed him. This was, of course, very inconvenient, for the king was constantly travelling about, sometimes in France, sometimes in Scotland, sometimes hunting, sometimes amusing himself in other ways. The consequence was that many people never got justice done to them at all, and though there were judges they were of little use.

It was for these reasons that Articles 17 and 18 were put into the Charter. Article 17 says, "**The Court of Common Pleas shall not follow the King's Court, but shall be held in a certain fixed place.**"

Article 18 says "**We, or, if we are absent from the kingdom, our Chief Justiciary, shall send four times a year into each County, two Judges, who . . . shall hold the Assizes at the time and place appointed in the said County.**"

A few years ago, anyone who went to **Westminster**, in London, and entered the great hall close to the Houses of Parliament, which is known as **Westminster Hall**, would have seen on one side of the Hall as he went up, five doors, and above them written in order, "**Queen's Bench**," "**Common Pleas**," "**Exchequer**," "**Lords Justices**," "**Lord Chancellor**." These were the doors of the Courts of Law, in which the judges sat.

The second door was that of the "**Common Pleas**," and there sat the judges hearing cases brought before them from all parts of the kingdom. They sat just as they were commanded to sit in Article 17 of **Magna Charta**, and ever since the time of King John down to the time of Queen Victoria, the **Judges of the Common Pleas** have sat all the year round at Westminster, during the law terms,

to hear cases and to give judgment. It did not matter where the king or queen might be, everyone knew that the judges were to be found "in a certain fixed place," namely, the Court of Common Pleas at Westminster.

In the year 1884 the old Courts at Westminster were pulled down, new ones having been opened two years earlier in the great building which stands in the Strand, in London, and which is called the **Royal Courts of Justice**. The Court of Common Pleas, the Court of Exchequer, and the Court of Queen's Bench are now all joined together, and all the judges who sit in them are called Judges of the **Queen's Bench**.¹ But though the name is changed, the thing is the same, and the Courts which sit at the Royal Courts of Justice in London are really the same Courts which are spoken of in Article 17 of Magna Charta.

But if everyone had to come to London to get justice, there would be very little justice done. This would be true even nowadays, when, thanks to railways, travelling is so easy and rapid. It would have been much more true in the time of King John, when there were scarcely any roads, and when it took weeks to get from York to London.

It was plain, therefore, that when those who wanted justice could not come to the judges, the judges must go to them. To provide for this, **Article 18** was put into the Charter. It runs as follows:—"We, or, if we are absent from the kingdom, our Chief Justiciary, shall send four times a year into each county, two judges, who . . . shall hold the **Assizes** at the time and place appointed in the said County."

Here we see it is provided that the judges shall go into every county, and shall hold the **Assizes** at some appointed place. Article 18 was written in the year 1215, but to this very day the rule which is laid down in it is carried out. Everyone who has lived in, or near, a County Town knows what is meant by the *Assizes*. Once or twice every year the **Judges of Assize** come to York, to Leeds, to Plymouth, to Manchester, to Norwich, to all the big towns in the country, and to some of the small ones, such as Bodmin in Cornwall, and Lewes in Sussex.

The two judges generally come into the town in state. The *High Sheriff* of the county goes to meet them in a grand carriage. Trumpeters ride before and blow upon their trumpets, and sometimes soldiers are sent to form a guard of honour for the judges. Two Courts are opened. In the one sits a judge clothed in a scarlet robe. He is called the "*Crown Judge*." All the prisoners who are in

¹ Or Queen's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice.

gaol waiting their trial are brought before him, to be tried by him and by a *Jury*, to be punished if they be guilty, and to be let free if they be innocent.

In the other Court sits the second judge in a black robe. He is called the "*Civil Judge*," and before him are brought all sorts of disputes between persons who have "gone to law" with each other.



THE JUDGES ENTERING AN ASSIZE TOWN.

He hears both sides, and decides which is right and which is wrong, and gives his judgment accordingly.¹

Thus we see that the rule laid down in the 18th Article of Magna Charta is still observed. For more than 650 years the Judges of Assize have taken their journeys through England, doing justice to the people in the name of the king or of the queen. The next time we read in the paper the words "Assize News," or the next time we see the judges with their trumpeters coming into a town, we shall do well to remember that we owe their coming to Article 18 of Magna Charta.

¹ Sometimes with a jury, and sometimes without.

Personal Liberty and Trial by Jury.

"You shall well and truly try and true deliverance make between our Sovereign Lady the Queen and the Prisoner at the Bar, and a true verdict give according to the evidence. So help you God!"—The Oath administered to the Jury in a Criminal Case.

But we must not forget that the judges were appointed by the king, and that an unjust king might easily appoint unjust judges; and that if the king wished to harm any of his subjects, it was as easy for him to injure them through the judges as to do the harm himself. If, therefore, Magna Charta had stopped at Article 18 it would have been very incomplete. Something more had to be done. We shall see what that something was when we read Article 39. **Article 39** was as follows:—"No freeman shall be arrested, or imprisoned, or dispossessed of his tenement, or outlawed, or exiled, or in anywise proceeded against, unless by the legal judgment of his Peers, or by the Law of the Land."

In the first place we must notice that Article 39 talks of "*Freemen*." Nowadays all men in England are free, but in the time of King John this was not so. In those days, and for many years afterwards, there were many Englishmen who were actually *slaves*, while there were others who were known as "*Serfs*," and who, though not slaves, were something very like it. They were prevented from leaving the land on which they lived, and they were compelled to do a large amount of work for their "*Lord*" without payment. To such as these the 39th Article of the Charter did not apply. But as everybody in England is now a free man, every Englishman is concerned in the rule contained in the article.

What the rule says shortly is this, that no man shall be punished in any way except by *Law*, and that whenever he be charged with any crime, he shall have the right to be tried before a jury of his countrymen before he is found guilty. We have got so accustomed to the enjoyment of these rights now, that we hardly understand how valuable they seemed to those who first got them acknowledged as part of the laws of England. Those who do wrong must be punished, and it is often quite just that they should be put in prison; but if the right to put them into prison were left to those whom they had injured, or to any person who was powerful enough to carry them off against their will, there would soon be no peace in the land.

Over and over again it has happened in our history, that persons have been put into prison by powerful enemies, and their liberty

taken away from them by force. But whenever this has been done, Article 39 of the Charter has been broken and set aside. The words of the Charter are very plain—"No man shall be arrested, or imprisoned, or dispossessed of his tenement (this means turned out of his house or land), or in anywise proceeded against (which means that no steps shall be taken to punish or to injure him), except by the legal judgment of his Peers."

If we want to know what is meant by "*The legal judgment of his Peers*," we have only to go into any court where prisoners are being tried at the Assizes. There we shall see a *jury* of twelve men chosen by lot from a long list of persons unknown to the prisoner. The jury will hear the whole of the case against the prisoner, and it is they who will have to say whether he be "*Guilty*," or "*Not Guilty*," of the crime which is laid to his charge. If they say that he be "*not guilty*," nothing more can be done to him, and no one can touch him.

It may be asked, What is the meaning of the word "*Peers*"? Peers here means "*Equals*," or persons in the same class of life. It was thought by those who drew up Magna Charta that it was only fair to a man that he should be tried by those of his own rank, and in his own way of life. For instance, they meant that a Baron should be tried by other barons, that a Churchman should be tried by other churchmen, and that a merchant, or a farmer, should, in the same way, be tried by those who were in the same rank of life as himself.

They thought that injustice would be done if those in one class were allowed to try those of another, for then there was always a danger that a jury of barons would be unfair to a churchman or to a merchant, that a jury of merchants would be unfair to a baron or a churchman, and so on. This was the more important, because, at the time when Magna Charta was signed, there were different laws for the churchmen, for the nobles, and for the merchants and farmers. Now that there is only one law for all, it is not necessary to make any distinction between the juries by which different people are tried.



How the Law Protects the Weak.

The law is no respecter of persons.

We must not suppose that because we are so accustomed to the idea of every man being judged according to law only, that even in our time the danger against which Article 39 of Magna Charta was intended to guard us is unknown. It is not so long ago, indeed, since men were put into prison and their property taken from them in England by order of the king, or by order of the House of Commons, contrary to the law of the land.

In the reign of **Charles I.**, the king himself did many things which were contrary to the law. Among other things, he tried to take prisoners **five Members of Parliament** in the House of Commons itself. But the House of Commons would not let the king take the Members prisoners. It was long before Charles could be punished for his illegal deeds, but at last, as we know, the Parliament and the people rose against him, and drove him from his throne, and put him to death.

The very first thing that his son, **Charles II.**, was made to do when he was put back upon the throne was to sign a solemn promise that he would always act according to the law, and that he would obey the rules which had been laid down in **Magna Charta**, and in the other laws of England.

Thus we see that Magna Charta has been a protection for the people and Parliament of England against the king, when the king became too strong. But it was not the king only who broke the law and disobeyed the rules of Magna Charta. In the reign of George III., the **House of Commons** ordered some men who had written down the speeches made in Parliament to be put into prison.

At that time no one was allowed to give an account of what was said in Parliament. The House of Commons sent a messenger to take one of these men, named **Wheble**, prisoner. But Wheble had never been tried according to the law, which says that no man shall be imprisoned unless he has been tried and found guilty by a jury, or

according to law. So when the messenger of the House of Commons came to take Wheble prisoner, Wheble turned the tables on him, and had the messenger himself made a prisoner.

The messenger was brought before the **Lord Mayor of London** to be tried, and the Lord Mayor said that it was plain that he had broken the law, for he had sought to imprison a man who had never been tried and found guilty. So the Lord Mayor sent the messenger of the House of Commons to prison. Then there was a great quarrel between the House of Commons and the Lord Mayor, but it ended in Wheble being allowed to go free. And thus we see that even the House of Commons has to obey the law, and is not allowed to break the rules laid down in **Magna Charta**.

And just as the king, when he was very powerful, tried to break the law, and just as Parliament, when it became very strong, tried to break the law, so also the very people for whom the law was made have sometimes tried to break it.

There was a time, not very long ago, when there were great trouble and alarm in the town of Sheffield. **A Trades Union** had been formed among the workmen who ground saws in Sheffield. It was called the "*Saw Grinders' Union*." All the saw grinders in Sheffield did not join the union, but those who belonged to it thought they were strong enough to make the others join. They tried to frighten the men who did not belong to the union. They broke their grindstones, they stole their tools, and they even killed some of the non-union men.

All these things were contrary to law; and so at last Parliament had to put a stop to this cruel work. They sent down men who made inquiry about all that had taken place, and who showed how the law had been broken. Then those who had broken the law were told that if ever they dared to offend in the same way again they would be severely punished.

Thus it will be seen that the **Law** is strong enough to punish **King** or **Parliament**, or **People**. It is a very good thing that the law is so strong and so clear, for history teaches us that those who have great power, whether they be king, or whether they be Members of Parliament, or whether they be working men, will often use their power to injure those who are weaker than themselves, and it is a good thing to have a law which will stop any man, whether he be rich or poor, high or low, from being unjust to others.

And even now, in our own time, there are many parts of the world in which people have been violently and unjustly put in prison, and their land and their property taken away from them, without any

regard for the law, and without those who were thus unjustly treated receiving a fair and open trial. It is a most happy thing for us in England to know that no man, whether he be rich or poor, high or low, can be punished in any way, or deprived of his property, without a full and fair trial

Magna Charta and the Seamstress.

"He shall keep the simple folk by their right; defend the children of the poor, and punish the wrong-doer."—Psalm lxxii.

And now we come to Article 20 of the Charter, which is as follows:—
"No Freeman, Merchant, or Villein¹ shall be excessively fined for a small offence; the first shall not be deprived of his means of livelihood; the second of his merchandise; the third of his implements of husbandry."

This is a very important Article, and a very interesting one. Shortly put, it says, that however much one man may owe to another, he shall never be deprived of those things which are necessary to enable him to get a living.

The law nowadays is not exactly the same as that laid down in Article 20, for in our day a man's merchandise may be taken in payment of his debts, but the law still says that a **man's bed, and a man's tools** with which he gets his living, may not be taken away from him.

Thus, not long ago, it happened that a woman in London owed money to a man. The man to whom she owed the money, the "*Creditor*," as he is called, went to law and got an order from the judge which enabled him to take from the woman who owed him the money, and who is called the "*Debtor*," enough of her property to pay the debt. Now, the woman was a seamstress, and earned her living by her sewing machine.

The creditor sent bailiffs to take a sufficient amount of her property to pay the debt. Among other things the bailiffs took the sewing machine. This was against the law, and they had no right to do it. The woman in her turn went to the magistrate and told him what

¹ Husbandman.

had been done. The magistrate said at once that *the Law had been broken*. He ordered the creditor to give back the sewing machine, and to pay a sum of money as a punishment for having broken the law.

This is a wise and reasonable rule, for it is only fair that all men and women should be allowed to keep the means by which they



BAILIFFS BREAKING "MAGNA CHARTA."

get their living. It is only good sense too; for if one man be owed money by another, it is no use taking from the debtor the very things by which he earns his livelihood. In the same way the law forbids a creditor to take the bed on which a man sleeps, or to take the tools with which he does his work. These rules, we shall see, were first laid down in **Article 20 of the Great Charter**.



"Things New and Old."

"The old never dies till this happen, till all the soul of good that was in it get itself transformed into the practical new."—Carlyle.

Now we have gone through the most important Articles of the Charter, and have seen how much these rules, which were drawn up and agreed to nearly seven hundred years ago, have to do with our own lives at the present day; and from this we may learn a lesson. It is said by some persons who do not think very carefully, that old laws must be bad ones, and that because a law has been a law for very many years, it must be old-fashioned or unreasonable. The moment we come to think, and to remember what we have just learnt about Magna Charta, we shall see how foolish such an opinion as this is.

Some laws which were made a long time ago are useless now, because the habits and customs of the people of England have changed so much that there is no longer any sense in the laws or use for them. For instance, laws were made at one time providing for the keeping up of **Castles** on the border between England and Scotland, and on the border between England and Wales, and for making certain people answerable for finding soldiers to defend the castles. Now there is no need for such castles, and the law, therefore, has long ago become useless.

Then there was also a very strange law made in the time of Queen Elizabeth which is of no use nowadays. In the time of Queen Elizabeth it became the fashion to wear tall, starched "**ruffs**," or collars, stuck up all round the head, like the one in the picture. The ruffs grew taller and taller, for everybody thought that the way to become fashionable was to wear a "ruff" a little higher than his neighbour. At last a law was made which forbade people to wear "ruffs" more than a certain height, and those who did so were punished. There may, perhaps, have been some good in the law when it was made, but there is certainly no good in it nowadays. Nobody now wants to wear "ruffs" high, and if they did they would receive no worse punishment than being laughed at.

There are also laws which were bad laws when they were made, or which were made at a time when people did not know things which we have since discovered. For instance, many laws were made

against **Witchcraft**, and terrible punishments were inflicted upon those who were suspected of being **Witches**. We now know that witchcraft and witches are foolish inventions, and all the laws against them, therefore, which were never wise, have long ago ceased to be part of the law of the land.

But there are some things which were right and true nearly 700 years ago, and which are as right and true now as they were then. It was right nearly 700 years ago that justice should be done to all men; it is also right now. It was right 700 years ago that no one should be punished except by law, and it is right now, and so we have to thank those ancestors of ours who lived in the time of King John because they were wise enough to make laws in their own time which were so just and so useful that the need for them is still felt in the time of Queen Victoria.

And we must not forget that **Magna Charta** is still a part of the **Law of the Land** just as much as any Act of Parliament that was passed last year. **Magna Charta** was first signed by King John, but it was afterwards altered several times, and it was signed again by Henry III., the son of King John.

If we look in the law books which contain the statutes or laws of England, we shall find there, near the beginning, a statute which the lawyers call "*Cap. IX., Hen. III.,*" which means *the ninth chapter of the statutes passed in the time of King Henry III.* Ever since that time **Magna Charta** has been part of the law of England, and it is interesting to remember that when Charles II. came back to England after the death of Oliver Cromwell, and was put back upon the throne, he was made to promise that he would observe the rules of **Magna Charta**.



QUEEN ELIZABETH IN HER "RUFF."



The Famous "Fifteens."

*"What hath this day deserv'd? What hath it done
That in golden letters should be set,
Among the high tides in the kalender?"*

Shakespeare: "King John," Act III.

We saw that the Charter was signed in the year 1215. It is interesting to observe how many of the important things in the history of England have happened in a year ending in the number "15."

In 1215 Magna Charta was signed. In 1415 Henry V. won the great victory of Agincourt over the French. In 1715 took place the "Jacobite Rebellion," when the Pretender tried to lead his Scottish army into England, a rebellion which is generally known in history as "The 'Fifteen." In 1815 was fought the great battle of Waterloo. Here are four famous dates which we shall find it very easy to remember—1215, 1415, 1715, and 1815.

CHAPTER XXII.

HENRY III.—THE PARLIAMENT OF ENGLAND.

1216-1272.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF HENRY III.

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| <p>Henry III., King of England, son of King John and Isabella of Angoulême, b. 1207, became King 1216, d. 1272.</p> <p>Eleanor of Provence, wife of Henry III., m. 1236.</p> <p>Edward, son of Henry III. and Eleanor of Provence, b. 1239, afterwards King of England.</p> <p>Margaret, daughter of Henry III., and Eleanor of Provence, m. Alexander III., King of Scotland.</p> <p>Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury, d. 1228.</p> <p>Hubert de Burgh, Justiciar, and Henry's most important Minister till 1232, d. 1243.</p> <p>Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, b. 1208, killed at Evesham 1265.</p> | <p>Louis IX. (St. Louis), King of France, became King 1226, d. 1270.</p> <p>Philip III., King of France, became King 1270, grandfather of Isabella, who married Edward II., King of England.</p> <p>Rudolph of Hapsburg (the ancestor of the present Emperor of Austria), chosen Emperor 1273.</p> <p>Roger Wendover, a monk of St. Albans, who wrote part of the history of this time, d. 1236.</p> <p>Matthew Paris, another monk of St. Albans, who continued the history after the death of Roger Wendover, d. 1259.</p> <p>Roger Bacon, b. 1214, an Oxford student and monk, who is said to have first used gunpowder in England.</p> |
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PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF HENRY III.

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| <p>1216. Henry becomes king.
 1217. Louis returns to France.
 Hubert de Burgh destroys the French fleet.
 The barons' party make terms with the king.
 1219. Death of the Earl of Pembroke, Earl Marshal.
 Hubert de Burgh, Justiciar, becomes the King's chief Minister.
 1228. Death of Stephen Langton.
 1232. Hubert de Burgh dismissed by the king.
 1236. Henry marries Eleanor of Provence.
 Large numbers of foreigners come to England with the Queen.
 1238. Simon de Montfort marries Eleanor, sister of King Henry, and widow of William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke.
 1239. Edward, son of Henry and Eleanor, who was afterwards King of England, born.</p> | <p>1239. Quarrel between King Henry and De Montfort.
 1242. War in Poitou with France. The barons refuse to give Henry money for the war.
 Discontent with the foreigners and the foreign clergy.
 1252. Montfort puts himself at the head of the barons.
 1258. Henry summons a Parliament, known as the "Mad Parliament."
 1263. Beginning of the "Barons' War."
 1264. Montfort defeats Henry at Lewes.
 1265. Montfort summons a Parliament, in which members for the Towns appear for the first time.
 The battle of Evesham. Death of Montfort.
 1270. Death of Louis IX., King of France.
 1272. Death of Henry III.</p> |
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The greater part of **Westminster Abbey**, as we know it now, was built in the reign of Henry III.

It is said that Roger Bacon, who lived during this reign, was the first person in England to describe **Gunpowder** and to explain its use.

It was during this reign that the great Italian poet, **Dante**, was born (1265).

Henry III. and his Foreign Friends.

CHAMBERLAIN—"Is't possible, the spells of France should juggle
 Men into such strange mysteries ?

SANDS— New customs,
 Though they be never so ridiculous,
 Nay, let 'em be unmanly, yet are follow'd.

* * * * *

CHAMBERLAIN— now, I would pray our monsieurs
 To think an English courtier may be wise,
 And never see the Louvre."

"Henry VIII." Act I., Scene 3.

WHEN **John** died he was succeeded by his son **Henry**.⁽¹⁸⁾ Henry was a boy of nine years of age when he became king. He reigned longer than any English sovereign except King George III. and Queen Victoria. But the reign of Henry was one of misery and disturbance for the people of England.

Little good was done for this country by the king. One thing, however, he did which was a good thing, and by which we may remember him. It was Henry III. who rebuilt the beautiful Abbey

at Westminster, and a great deal of the Abbey as it now stands dates from the time of Henry III.

But if Henry did little that was good or worthy, some things happened during his reign which were of great importance, and which have made a great difference to the people of England. When we go through the reigns of the different kings and queens of England, and try to put down what is the chief thing to be remembered in each of them, we shall see when we come to the reign of Henry III. that the chief thing to be remembered is that **the first English Parliament sat in the reign of Henry III.**

If we take up a newspaper we often see the words "**Imperial Parliament,**" and underneath them an account of the speeches which are made, and the **Acts** which are passed in **the House of Lords and the House of Commons.** This great Parliament, which everybody knows something about nowadays, has come down to us from the stormy reign of Henry III.

We must try to understand how it was that this came about. One thing we can hardly help noticing, and that is, how often good comes out of evil. We saw how in the time of King John there were injustice and cruelty throughout the land. We saw also how this very injustice and cruelty led to King John being forced to sign Magna Charta. And now again in the time of Henry III., we shall see how troubles and disturbances led to the founding of the Parliament of which we are so proud.

The whole story cannot really be told so shortly as it must be told here. A great deal must be left out which can be read in larger books, but the chief part of the story can be told in a few pages.

We shall find, as a rule, that whenever a great change is made in the history of a country, there has always been one great man whose name is remembered because of the part he took in helping to bring about that change. And so it is in this case. The name which Englishmen ought always to think of when they speak of the first Parliament, is the name of a very great man, **Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester.**

And now let us go back to the history itself. It seemed at first as if things would have gone on smoothly after the death of King John, for John had made promises of good behaviour in Magna Charta, on behalf of himself and of his son. But it was soon seen that there were many difficulties to be overcome.

As soon as the king grew old enough to be married, he took as his wife **Eleanor of Provence.** **Provence** is in the south of France, and Eleanor was, of course, a foreigner, and all her friends were foreigners



THE BARONS ASKING HENRY III. TO KEEP HIS PROMISES.

too. These friends came over in numbers to England, and they all expected to receive from King Henry some of the riches of England, either in money or in lands. Some were given castles and lands, others were made archbishops or bishops. Nor had these strangers the good sense to use their fortune wisely. They despised the English people, and were cruel and insolent to them. We can easily understand that the English, both rich and poor, soon began to hate these ill-mannered foreigners, who took their land and their money, and who treated them so badly.

A party of barons formed themselves together. At the head of them was **Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester**. Simon was the son of a Frenchman who had become famous as a great soldier. Simon, the younger, came over to England when he became Earl of Leicester, at his father's death, and he soon learnt to share the feelings of the English barons and the English people. They, too, on their side, learnt to trust him, for they saw that he was a strong man, true and brave. Quarrels soon broke out between the king and the barons. The king broke the promises which had been made by his father in Magna Charta. Simon de Montfort and the barons took up arms against him, as the barons had done against John, and made him swear once more that he would keep to the Charter. In order that the barons and the people might have some way of making the king keep his promise in the future, Simon de Montfort declared that there must be a *Council* called to help the king in the government of the country.

Laws, and Law-makers

"Be it enacted by the Queen's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows :"—From the commencement of a modern Act of Parliament.

We now come to a very important time in the history of England. The story which is to be told in this chapter is the story of **the beginning of Parliament**. We all know pretty well what Parliament is, and we know something about what it does. Parliament is made up of the **King or Queen**, and the **Two Houses**, called the **House of Lords** and the **House of Commons**. Every law that is made has to be agreed to by the House of Commons, and by the House of Lords, and then

by the King or Queen. It is with the House of Commons that we now have to do.

The House of Commons is made up of a great number of **Members** who have been chosen or elected by the people living in the counties and towns of England, Scotland, and Ireland, to speak on behalf of those who have elected them. In this way the people of England, Scotland, and Ireland make their own laws, and whether they be good laws or bad laws depends upon those who make them. If the laws be bad, the people of England, Scotland, and Ireland have nobody to thank but themselves. But if they be made in this way, they are more likely to be good laws than if they are made in any other way; for, as it was said by those who wrote about Parliament so long ago as the time of Simon de Montfort and Henry III., "*They who are ruled by the laws know those laws best; they who make daily trial of them are best acquainted with them; and since it is their own affairs which are at stake, they will take more care, and will act with an eye to their own peace.*"

What was true in the time of King Henry is true now. Those who have to obey the laws are most likely to know whether the laws injure them or not; and, as a rule, people will more readily obey those laws which they have had some share in making.

Now let us see how it happened that the people of England first began to think of this way of making laws in the time of Henry III. It seems simple enough in these days, but it was a new thing then, and a great deal of hard work and hard fighting had to be done before our Parliament could be made such as we now know it.

In the time of Henry, nearly all the government of the country was carried on by the king and the king's *Ministers*; that is to say, by those officers whom he appointed. Armies were got together by order of the king; the king himself often led his soldiers in battle. Great buildings, such as Westminster Abbey, were built by order of the king.

To do all, or indeed any, of these things, money was wanted—and often a great deal of money. At first, when William the Conqueror came over, and when the English had little power and could do nothing to protect themselves, it was not hard for the king to ask for whatever he wanted, and to take it, whether the owners liked or not. But by-and-by, as we have seen, the king found that this plan did not always succeed.

We read in another chapter how the barons forced King John to promise to do justice, and to keep to the rules laid down in Magna Charta. One of these rules was that the king should only take a "*fair*" amount of money from the barons and the people whenever he wanted money to spend. It was very easy to say that the king

was only to take a *fair* amount, but who was to decide what was *fair*? If the king were strong, the king decided, and took what he chose, for "*might was right*." If the king were weak, then the barons or the citizens of the towns decided for themselves what they thought fair, and the king did not get what he wanted.

Neither way was a very good way, and both sides soon found this out. It has often been said of Englishmen, "that they are easier to lead than to drive"; they are often more ready to give a thing because they are asked to give, than to give it because they are commanded to do so. Simon de Montfort knew this very well, and after King Henry had been beaten at the battle of Lewes (1264), Simon formed a plan by which he thought that the quarrel between the king, who was always in want of money, and the barons and people, who had got to pay the money, could be put an end to.

"*Let the king,*" said Simon, "*call together the barons and the citizens, and let him tell them how much money it is that he wants, and what he wants it for, and then it will be for the barons and the people to say how much money they will give, and in what way it shall be collected. If the king asks what is right and just, then what he asks will be given to him, and it will be given all the more willingly because those who have to pay it will know for what purpose it is to be used, and will have given it of their own free will.*"

With this thought in his mind, Simon de Montfort and his friends advised the king to call together a **Parliament**, to help him to govern the country. And now, for the first time, a real Parliament was called. There sat in the Parliament only **twenty-three barons**. Some of the barons were enemies of Montfort, and some thought they would offend the king by coming; others were afraid to come. There were also **a hundred and twenty Churchmen**, and besides these there were the "**Members**," as we now call them, chosen from each county and town. The county members were called "**Knights of the Shire**," and, indeed, that is what they are called to this day.

When a new Parliament is called together, notices are sent to the **Sheriff** of each **County Division**, telling him to send to Parliament a "**Knight of the Shire**" for that part of the country. There are eight knights of the shire for Devon-shire. Little Rutland-shire has only one, and York-shire has no less than twenty-seven.

But when we talk about Knights of the Shire, we generally call them "**County Members**." Those who are sent to Parliament to speak on behalf of the towns were called "**Burgesses**." We now call them "**Borough Members**," which is very much the same thing.

The First Parliament.

*"Now call we our High Court of Parliament,
And let us choose such limbs of noble counsel,
That the great body of our state may go
In equal rank with the best-govern'd nation."*

"Henry IV.," Part II., Act V., Scene 2.

This first Parliament, which was called together six hundred years ago, did not do very much. The country was still divided into two parties, and Montfort had many enemies. The king was glad enough to get rid of the Parliament, and Parliaments were not then as strong as they are now, and so this first Parliament very soon came to an end. But though it was the first, we know very well that it was not the last, and from that time to this there has been a long chain of Parliaments, some good, some bad. Through them the people of England have been able to speak, and to say by what laws they wished to be governed, and what money they wished to pay.

One thing we ought to notice. It was thought when Parliaments first began, that it would be very hard for the king ever to get enough money to do what was needed for the country. It was feared that when the people of England were asked to give money, they would always say "No," and would keep as much of their money in their pockets as possible.

But this fear has not turned out to be well founded, and the reason is that English people have generally had good sense. They know well that a great deal of money must be spent in order that a great country such as England may be properly governed, and they have, therefore, nearly always been willing to give very large sums of money out of their pockets to enable the king to govern their country.

Nowadays the king or queen does not govern the country in the same way as King Henry II. or King William I. used to do. In the time of Queen Victoria, it is Parliament which really decides who shall govern the country. But money is wanted now just as much as it was wanted in the time of King Henry, and every year Parliament is asked to give many millions of pounds, which have to be paid by the people of England in order that the Army and Navy may be kept up, that the Judges and the Police may be paid, that the Post Office may be carried on, and for many other purposes.

It is true that in the reign of Henry III. England seemed for a time to be split up into two parties—the party of the king on the one hand, and the party of the barons and the people on the other—and that these two parties were always at war with each other. But it would be a great mistake to think that this was always the case in the history of England. Over and over again, the Parliaments of England gladly gave the money that they were asked to give. It was only when they thought the king was breaking the law, or doing some unjust act, that they used their right to refuse to give him the money for which he asked.

The Fall of Montfort.

*"When the Barons in arms did King Henry oppose,
Sir Simon de Montfort their leader they chose;
A leader of courage undaunted was he,
And oftentimes he made their enemies flee.*

*"At length, in the battle on Evesham Plain,
The Barons were routed, and Montfort was slain."
"Sir Simon de Montfort," from Percy's "Reliques."*

And now we must go back for a short time to Simon de Montfort, and see what happened to him after he had persuaded the king to call together a Parliament. It seemed as if from that time good-fortune had forsaken him. Many who had been his friends left him, and his enemies were always ready to do him harm.

Before long King Henry thought himself strong enough to take up arms a second time against De Montfort. He was soon joined by his son **Edward**, who had fought bravely by his father's side at the battle of Lewes. Montfort, like a brave old soldier, put himself at the head of his troops, and went out to meet the king. But this time everything seemed against him. His army was small, and that of King Henry was large; and, worst of all, the king's army was under the command of Prince Edward, whom Montfort himself had long ago instructed in the duties of a soldier and a general.

At last the armies came face to face with each other near **Evesham**, in Worcestershire (1265). Simon rode out in front of his troops to look at the army of the enemy. When he saw it drawn up in good order, and arranged with great art, he knew at once who must be the general who

had displayed so much skill. "*By the arm of St. James!*" he cried, "*they come on in wise fashion; but it was from me that they learnt it.*" He knew that his pupil, the young Prince Edward, was leading this great army against him.

The battle began, and soon the small band with Simon were cut down or forced to fly. Everywhere the victory rested with the young prince. Simon himself was struck from his horse, and, at last, fighting bravely, was killed upon the field of battle. Thus died Simon de Montfort, one of the greatest men of whom we read in the history of England.

Simon de Montfort was a foreigner by birth, but he had learnt to become as English as the English themselves. He was true and just in all his dealings, and, perhaps because he was so true and just, he made many enemies, for many men had unjustly taken that to which they had no right, and when they were made to give up that which did not belong to them, they were angry with the man who stood up for what was right.

A story is told of Simon which shows us what kind of a man he was. The king promised that all the foreign barons should be made to give up their castles. Now Simon himself was a foreigner, and held the two great castles of Kenilworth and Odiham.

But Simon was not going to be the first to break a law which he had helped to make. He gave up his two castles at once. But if he was to obey the rule, he was determined that others should do so too. His enemy, **William of Valence**, Earl of Pembroke, vowed that, whether the king ordered it or no, he at any rate would not give up his castles. Simon turned fiercely upon him: "*You shall either give up your castles or your head,*" said he. William of Valence was wise enough to know that what Simon de Montfort said he meant, and in order to keep his head he soon gave up his castles.

Perhaps the most noble thing to be remembered about Simon de Montfort is the way in which he was always true to England and to his friends. No man fought harder for King Henry, or did better service to the king than Simon, and yet King Henry was always ready to desert him, and to honour and reward the enemies of England, rather than the man who was the friend of England.

Very different was the conduct of Simon. Once when Henry had treated him with great injustice, and taken from him a large sum of money, and many of his castles, Simon received from the King of France the offer of a much larger sum of money, and greater and stronger castles, if he would serve Louis instead of King Henry; for throughout all Europe the name of Simon de Montfort was known as

that of a great leader and a wise counsellor. But Simon refused the offer of the King of France with scorn, and would never consent to serve any other country than England.

His name deserves a much higher place in the history of England than that of his sovereign. The memory of King Henry should be held in scorn by every Englishman, because he honoured and rewarded the enemies of England, and hated and ill-treated those who were true to England.

Henry III. died in the year 1272 in his sixty-sixth year.



PART THREE.**ENGLAND UNDER ENGLISH KINGS.**

1272-1485.

NOTE.

The Third Part of our history deals with the period of two hundred and thirteen years which elapsed between the accession of Edward I. and the death of the last of the great line of Plantagenet kings, Richard III., on Bosworth field. The period is one of chequered fortunes. We shall read first how under our kings, now real Englishmen, the limits of the kingdom as it was to exist for more than three centuries were decided : how the great soldier Edward I. added Wales to his dominions, and how his feeble son lost Scotland.

With Edward III. begins the story of the terrible Hundred Years' War, which drained the resources of England and France, a war in which brilliant triumphs were succeeded by melancholy failures, and in which English kings and English soldiers first won and then lost the fair kingdom of France.

Lastly we come to the history of the civil conflict known as the " Wars of the Roses," and of the sordid quarrels which followed in its course ; we see how the destruction of the great nobles led to the growth of a new aristocracy, while the crown obtained a power and influence in the country which even our greatest kings had never hitherto secured.

Something is said of the social life of the country ; of Wycliffe, the great religious teacher ; of Chaucer, the great English poet, the creator of our modern speech, and of Caxton the printer, the man to whom we owe the fixing of our language in forms which have become possessions for ever.

CHAPTER XXIII.

EDWARD I. AND "THE BREAKING OF WALES."

1272-1307.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF EDWARD I.

Edward I., King of England, sometimes called "Edward Longshanks," son of Henry III. and Eleanor of Provence, b. 1239, became King 1272, d. 1307.

Eleanor of Castile (Spain), sister of Alfonso IV., King of Castile, wife of Edward I., m. 1254, d. 1290.

Edward, Prince of Wales, fourth son of Edward I., and Eleanor of Castile, b. 1284, afterwards King of England.

Margaret, sister of Philip III., King of France, second wife of Edward I., m. 1299.

Alexander III., King of Scotland, d. 1285.

Margaret, sister of Edward I., wife of Alexander III.

Margaret ("The Maid of Norway"), granddaughter of Alexander and Margaret, and great-niece of Edward I., recognised as Queen of Scotland, d. 1290.

John Balliol, King of Scotland 1292. Resigned the crown before his death.

Robert Bruce, grandfather of Robert the Bruce, King of Scotland, d. 1295.

Robert the Bruce, Baron Skelton, Lord of Annandale, afterwards King of Scotland, b. 1274, became King 1306.

Comyn, Regent of Scotland, murdered by Robert the Bruce 1306.

William Wallace, Scottish patriot, executed 1305.

Llewelyn, the last Welsh Prince of Wales, d. 1282.

Rudolph of Hapsburg, ancestor of the present Emperor of Austria, chosen Emperor 1273.

Great Writers—

Roger Bacon, d. 1294.

Dante (the Italian Poet), b. 1265.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF EDWARD I.

1272. Edward, then in Palestine on a Crusade, proclaimed King.

1274. Edward reaches England. Persecution of the Jews in England.

1275. Edward invades Wales.

1282. The English capture Anglesey, but are defeated in North Wales.

Edward invades South Wales.

Death of Llewelyn.

1284. Prince Edward presented to the Welsh at Carnarvon Castle.

English law introduced into Wales.

1285. Alexander III., King of Scotland, dies.

1290. Death of Margaret, "The Maid of Norway," and Queen of Scotland. Balliol and Bruce claim the Scottish throne.

1292. Edward decides in favour of Balliol.

1294. Edward puts down a second insurrection in Wales.

Balliol submits to Edward as his feudal lord.

The Scots make an alliance with France, and declare war against England. Roger Bacon dies.

1295. Edward marches into Scotland.

1296. Edward captures Berwick.

The Scots defeated at Dunbar. Conquest of Scotland.

1297. William Wallace heads a Scottish insurrection.

The English defeated by Wallace at Stirling Bridge.

Edward begins war with the French in Flanders.

The barons refuse to give aid until Edward had confirmed the "Charters."

1298. Edward destroys the Scottish army at Falkirk.

1299. Edward marries Margaret, sister of Philip, King of France.

1305. Wallace taken and executed.

1306. Robert the Bruce murders Comyn, Regent of Scotland, and joins the Scots.

Bruce becomes King of Scotland.

1307. Edward marches north.

Death of Edward at Burgh-by-Sands, aged 69.

OTHER EVENTS OF IMPORTANCE WHICH HAPPENED DURING THIS REIGN.

1282. Massacre of the Normans in Sicily, known as the "*Sicilian Vespers*."
 1306. **William Tell**, the hero of Switzerland, supposed to have revolted against Gesler, the Austrian Governor, in this year.

1307. **Switzerland** declares itself independent.
Marco Polo, the great Venetian traveller, visits China and Japan during this reign.

England at War.

"In the person of the great Edward, the work of reconciliation is completed. Norman and Englishmen have become one under the best and greatest of our later kings, the first who, since the Norman entered our land, . . . followed a purely English policy."—Freeman.

WE now come to the reign of three kings—father, son, and grandson: **Edward I.**,⁽¹⁹⁾ **Edward II.**,⁽²⁰⁾ and **Edward III.**⁽²¹⁾

These three reigns cover a long period in the history of England, for from the day when Edward I. came to the throne, to the day on which his grandson, Edward III., died, is no less than one hundred and five years.

These one hundred and five years are full of interest; much happened in them that Englishmen ought to know and care about, but we have not room here to follow every subject in detail and we must therefore try to choose those which are the most important.

The reigns of the three Edwards must always be remembered as times of war. It is not always that the wars which take place during any part of a country's history are the most important things to read about and to remember.

We sometimes give up too much time to reading about battles and fighting just because they are interesting and exciting, and forget that the battles sometimes make really very little difference to the country, and that what happens during many years of peace is often far more important than what happens during a few years of war. But we cannot say about the wars of King Edward I. and of his son and grandson, that they were unimportant, and that they made no real difference to the history of England. On the contrary, we shall see they made

a very great difference indeed, and that England would not have been what it is if these wars had not been fought.

Three countries touched or lay very close to the borders of England. With each of these countries England, during the reign of the Edwards, was at war. **Wales**, **Scotland**, and **France** were in turn invaded, and the red cross of "**St. George**"¹ was seen on the **Severn**, the **Forth**, and the **Seine**.

The wars which began with the accession of Edward I., and ended, or rather ceased for a time, at the death of his grandson, Edward III., had very different results for the three countries in which they were carried on. It may be said that the one hundred and five years which passed between 1272 and 1377 saw "*the Breaking of Wales*," "*the Making of Scotland*," and "*the Ruin of France*."

We shall learn in the next chapters what is the meaning of these three sayings, and how far it is true to say that the wars of the Edwards "*broke*" Wales, "*made*" Scotland, and "*ruined*" France.

"The Breaking of Wales."

"The DIVINE PROVIDENCE having now, of its favour, wholly transferred to our dominion the land of Wales, with its inhabitants, heretofore subject to us in feudal right, all obstacles ceasing; and having annexed and united the same unto the crown of the aforesaid realm as a member of the same body; we therefore . . . desiring that the people of those lands who have submitted themselves to our will should be protected in security, under fixed laws and customs, have caused to be rehearsed before us and the nobles of our realm, the laws and customs in those parts hitherto in use; which, having fully understood, we have, by the advice of the said nobles, abolished some of them, some we have allowed, and some we have corrected, and we have commanded and ordained certain others to be added thereto."—From the Preamble to "*The Statutes of Wales*," passed by the Parliament held at Rhuddlan in Flintshire, 1284.

The **Saxons** in the long wars that followed the landing of Hengist and Horsa, broke down bit by bit the power of the **Britons**. The Saxons landed on the south and east coasts of England, and as they marched on towards the west, they drove before them the British tribes who refused to submit, and who were lucky enough to escape from the swords of their pursuers.

¹ The English Flag, see frontispiece.

Step by step the Saxons advanced, and step by step the Britons retreated before them. The Saxons reached the sea at **Carlisle**, at **Chester**, the border between England and Wales, at **Bristol**, and at **Plymouth**. It seemed as if the unhappy Britons must either be pushed into the Irish Channel, or be utterly destroyed by their fierce enemies.

But if we take a map of England and draw a line joining Plymouth, Bristol, Chester, and Carlisle, we shall see that to the *west* of this line there lie two great pieces of country which form the most western parts of England, and which we know to be **Cornwall** and **Wales**.

In these distant corners the retreating Britons at last found refuge. Cornwall was very far off, and in Wales the steep mountains and thick forests formed a protection against the Saxon armies. It was in Cornwall and Wales, therefore, that the Britons at last settled, and it is in Cornwall and Wales that their descendants are to be found to this day.

But it was not long before the Saxons made their way into Cornwall. Between Devonshire and Cornwall there is no great natural division, no broad river like the Severn flows between them, nor are there in Cornwall high mountains like **Snowdon** and **Cader Idris**. Besides, it was easy for the sailors of Dover, Portsmouth, and Plymouth to sail down to the Land's End and into the harbours of Fowey, Falmouth, and Penzance without fear of being interrupted by the British tribes on land. And so it happened that before the time of Edward I. Cornwall had become a part of the **Kingdom of England**, and that the Saxons and Britons had already begun to mix together in the west. It is true that Cornwall was more British than any other part of England, and so it is now.

There is a well-known rhyme which says that

*"By Tre, Pol, and Pen,
You may know Cornishmen."*

The rhyme means that if a man has a name which begins with "**Tre**," such as "**Trevenen**," or with "**Pol**," such as "**Poltimore**," or with "**Pen**," such as "**Penrose**," he is most likely a Cornishman. Now Tre, Pol, and Pen are all British words. "**Tre**" means a village, "**Pol**" means a pool, and "**Pen**" means the top of a hill: so even now we can see marks of Cornwall being more British than Saxon. But nowadays we may go from Saltash¹ to Penzance without hearing a word of any other language than English; and even so long ago as the time of Edward I. Cornwall was fast becoming an English county.

¹ Saltash is the first town we reach on entering Cornwall from Devonshire by the Great Western Railway. Penzance is the last town in Cornwall before we reach the Land's End.

But the history of Wales is altogether different. If we travel from **Bangor** to **Barmouth**, we go through village after village where all the old people, and nearly all the young ones, talk Welsh instead of English, and in which there are still some people who can talk no language but Welsh. These people are the descendants of the **Britons** who held their own against the Saxons a thousand years ago, and who have

lived in the land, and who have kept their own language from that time to this.

Up to the time of Edward I. the Kings of England had never been able to make the Welsh submit to them. Armies had often been sent across the Severn into the mountains of Montgomery and Brecknockshire. Sometimes the English and the Normans had gained a victory, but the bravery of the Welsh, and the difficulty of fighting in pathless valleys and on steep mountain sides, had always been too much for the invaders in



MAP SHOWING THE BRITISH DISTRICTS IN ENGLAND.

the end. They had been driven out, and the Welsh princes, though conquered for a time, had always got back what had been lost.

But now they had to deal with a man who was both a great soldier and a wise king; and at last, in spite of their own bravery, and in spite of the protection which their mountains and their forests afforded, the Welsh were forced to admit that they had found a master.

In the reigns of John and Henry III. there had been a great deal of

fighting along the border-land between England and Wales. The Norman barons had built strong castles on the border, or sometimes beyond it, in lands which they had taken from the Welsh. And the Welsh on their side often crossed the border into England to rob and plunder the English.

In the reign of Henry III., while the long war between Henry and the barons was going on, the Welsh had become more powerful than before. Under their Prince **Llewelyn** they joined together to take back from the English all that they had lost, and even made an attack upon the English town of **Shrewsbury**.

At first Llewelyn was victorious, and the Welsh, proud of the bravery of their prince, came from all parts of the country to fight for him, and for their land. The Welsh have always been lovers of music and song. To this day some of the best and most sweet-voiced choirs in the kingdom are those which come from Wales. Each year there is held in Wales a great meeting called an "*Eisteddfod*," pronounced "*Eistethvode*," at which poems and songs which have been written on purpose are read and sung, and at which prizes are given to those who have done best. Six hundred years ago the Welsh were the same song-loving, musical people that they are now; and when Llewelyn, Prince of Wales, came forward to lead his people against the English, and when it seemed as if he were going at last to lead his countrymen to victory, there came from all parts, harpers, and poets, or "*Bards*," as they were called, who sang his praises, and foretold the great deeds which he was to do.

But, alas! for the Welsh, neither their own courage nor the promises of victory made to them by the Bards, were enough to save them from defeat. Weary of the attacks made upon the English border, King Edward at last determined to march into Wales. He sent a message to Llewelyn bidding him do homage to him as King of Wales. Llewelyn refused to obey, and the English army marched into his country.

At first it seemed as if victory were to be on the side of the Welsh; the English were defeated in North Wales. But ere long the fortune of war changed, and the Welsh were everywhere beaten. Llewelyn, the last Welsh Prince of Wales, was killed in battle in South Wales (1282), and Edward was soon master of the whole country, from **Bangor** on the north to **Pembroke** on the south.

The king used his victory wisely and well. Strong castles were built throughout the country to guard against another rising. On page 195 is a picture of one of them, which is standing to this day, and which

may be seen by anyone who pays a visit to North Wales. The country was divided into twelve counties. English laws took the place of the old Welsh laws, and the king's son, the little Prince Edward⁽²⁰⁾, who was born in **Carnarvon Castle** (1284), was made Prince of Wales (1301).

From that day to this the eldest son of the king or queen of England has borne as his first and highest title, the name of **Prince of Wales**. From the time of Edward I. the history of Wales as a separate country comes to an end. The people of Wales kept their old language, their old customs, and their old history, but they gave up their old laws and their old princes. Thus we see how the first war of the three Edwards ended in the "*Breaking of Wales*," and in joining together once more all the people of England who had been separated for a time by the fight between Saxon and Briton.

CHAPTER XXIV

SCOTLAND.

"Over the Border."

*"At the park afterward his parliament set he,
The good King Edward, at Lincoln his citie;
At St. Catherine's house the Earl Marshal lay;
In the Broadgate lay The Bruse, erle was he that day.
The King lay at Middleham; it is the bishop's towne;
And other lords came, in the countrie up and downe."*

Longtoft, describing the Parliament of Lincoln.

WE now come to the second set of wars which was fought during the reigns of the three Edwards, and which ended in the "*Making of Scotland*." Before we can understand how these wars began, and how they ended, we must turn our attention for a short time to the history of **Scotland**.

We are accustomed to think of England and Scotland as having been in old times two quite distinct countries, like England and France.



CARNARVON CASTLE.
(From a Photograph by J. Slater, Llandudno.)

We think of the English living on the south side of the "Border" and the Scots on the north side as people of two different nations, each governed by its own king and having its own separate Government.

It is true that a time came when the two countries were really divided in this way. But up to the time of Edward I. there was no such distinction. The division between England and Scotland is very different from the division between England and Wales. Between Somersetshire and Glamorganshire, there runs the broad water of the Bristol Channel; and the traveller has scarcely crossed the border between England and Wales, at any place between Chester and Cardiff, before he finds himself among the steep mountains and narrow valleys in which the Welsh armies were accustomed to take refuge.

But it is quite possible to go from **England** into **Scotland** and never know when the border has been crossed. It is true that at the eastern end the valley of the Tweed is deep, and makes a clear line between the two countries; but further to the west there is scarcely anything to show where England ends and Scotland begins. If we take the train from Carlisle to Dumfries, we shall stop first at a little station called Gretna Green. Gretna Green is in Scotland, but one must keep a very sharp look-out from the carriage window to know at what moment the train crosses the little stream of the Gretna which here divides the two countries.

Nor is there any very great difference between the way people talk in the North of England and in the South of Scotland. The Welsh which is spoken in Carnarvonshire is quite a different language from the English which is spoken in Shropshire, but there is really very little difference between the talk of Cumberland-men and Peebles-men. Indeed, there is no reason why there should be much difference, for they are all really part of the same people.

But if we go further north, across the Firth of Forth, and beyond Stirling, we shall find a very different state of things. Here the traveller leaves behind him the fertile fields and broad plains of the **Lowlands**, and begins to climb the steep sides or thread his way through the narrow passes of the **Highland mountains**. Here, even in our own day, we find a people speaking a language which is not English, but which is more like Welsh. It is called "*Gaelic*," and the *Highlanders*, who talk Gaelic, are quite a different people from the English-speaking *Lowlanders*.

When the Saxons came into England, and drove the Britons back before them, they did not stop either at the Tweed or the Gretna. There was no reason why those who had made their way into what is now Yorkshire, Durham, Cumberland, and Northumberland should not

find their way into what we now call the Scottish counties of Peebles, Berwick, Selkirk, and The Lothians.

The Saxons, indeed, spread far and wide throughout the Lowlands of Scotland, and either drove out the **Scots** and **Picts** whom they found there, or became mixed up with them. The south of Scotland became nearly as Saxon as the north of England. In the same way, when William the Conqueror had made himself master of England, the Norman barons who had followed him passed on quite as a matter of course into the south of Scotland. Lands were given to them in Scotland as well as in England. They held these lands from the Scottish king, but at the same time they kept their lands in England, and looked to William and the kings of England as their real *feudal* lords.¹

Scotland itself was divided among many tribes and clans, and the early Kings of Scotland had but little power over the whole country. The people of Scotland had not at that time become one people; we shall see in this chapter how they became so. The kings of England, for a long time before the reign of Edward I., had claimed to be kings of Scotland, and English armies had sometimes marched far into Scotland. But the English kings had, as a rule, too much to do near home to allow of their taking much trouble to make good their claim to Scotland.

But when Edward I. came to the throne, a great change had come over England. The long wars between Henry and the barons were over. Edward himself was a true English king. The Normans and the Saxons had learnt to live together without quarrelling. The Norman barons, who spoke French, and who were looked upon by the English as foreigners and enemies, had now become the barons of England, many of whom talked English and were as ready to fight for England as they had formerly been to fight against England.

The king himself was beloved by all the people. The English hailed him as the first really "English" king since the death of Harold. Nor was Edward beloved for this reason only. Tall, handsome, and strong, with golden hair, he seemed to the English to be a real Englishman. He was proud and wilful, but he was a true lover of his people, seeking to do what was just and honest. His soldiers loved him for his courage, and for his readiness to share in all their hardships. The people looked upon him as their protector against the nobles. He was a religious man, a hard worker, and was always true to England and to the English people. It is not wonderful, therefore, that the English people, though they often feared him, learnt to love him, and were ready to follow him.

¹ See page 114.

The Fight for the Scottish Crown.

*"Nemo me impune lacessit."*¹

"Wha dare meddle wi' me?"

We have seen how Edward led his armies into Wales; how he defeated and killed Llewelyn, the last of the Welsh princes, and how he added the twelve Welsh counties to the kingdom of England. It was, perhaps, not strange that when he had thus conquered one part of our island, he should turn his attention to another. Llewelyn was killed in the year 1282. In 1296, or fourteen years later, Edward was marching at the head of an English army into Scotland.

On the death of **Alexander III.**, King of Scotland (1285), the next heir to the throne was a little girl named **Margaret**, grand-daughter of the late king, and daughter of **Eric**, King of Norway. Margaret, or as she was sometimes called, "*The Fair Maid of Norway*," was sent for, and she started from her home to become Queen of Scotland. But the child fell sick on the long voyage from Norway, and died ere the ship reached Scotland.

Then there came a terrible dispute. No fewer than *thirteen* persons claimed the crown of Scotland. Foremost among the claimants were two Norman barons, who held lands in both Scotland and England. One was **John of Balliol**, and the other was **Robert Bruce**. **Balliol** was **Lord of Galloway in Scotland**; **Robert Bruce** was **Lord of Skelton in Yorkshire**, and was also **Lord of Annandale and Carrick in Scotland**.

As no agreement could be come to as to who should become king of Scotland, it was at last decided to bring the matter before King Edward, and to ask him to decide. Edward heard the case and decided in favour of **John Balliol**, and so Balliol became King of Scotland. Edward now thought that a good time had come for making the Scottish king admit once for all the right of the King of England to be the *feudal lord* of the King of Scotland; and he commanded Balliol to *do homage* to him. Balliol was willing to do this, but the Scots would not allow him to yield, and at last he had to send a message to Edward refusing to admit his claim.

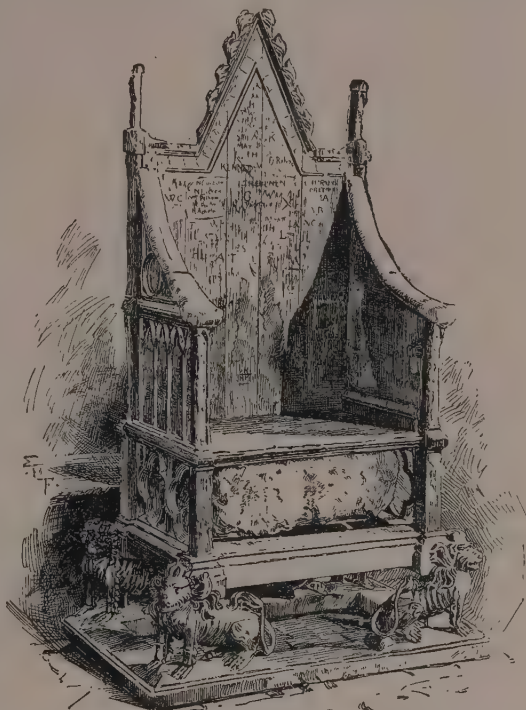
Edward's anger was roused. He summoned his army and marched

¹ The Latin motto which accompanies the "thistle," the emblem of Scotland. It means, "No one can touch me with impunity." It is freely, but not incorrectly translated in the famous motto of the great Scottish family of the Campbells "*Wha dare meddle wi' me?*"

northwards. Among the barons who followed him was **Robert the Bruce, Lord of Skelton, Annandale, and Carrick**, the grandson of Robert Bruce, who had claimed the Scottish throne. Soon the royal army came to **Berwick-on-Tweed**, which was then a Scottish town. The townsmen refused to give up the city, and Edward attacked it with fury. Berwick was taken (1296), and thousands of the enemy were put to death. It was decided that the city should for the future belong to England, and from that time to this it has formed part of England. It has always been remembered, however, that it once was a part of Scotland, and so it became the custom, when speaking of the dominions of the King of England, to say, **England, Ireland, and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed.**

The English kings would have liked to say that they were Kings of England, Ireland, and Scotland, but they could never

make themselves masters of Scotland, and the only bit of Scottish land which they were able to keep was the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed. And so it was that instead of saying that they were kings of England, Ireland, and Scotland, they had to content themselves with saying that they were Kings of England, Ireland, and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed.



THE CORONATION CHAIR AND "THE STONE OF DESTINY."

It was not till four hundred years after the death of Edward I. that the kings of England and Ireland could call themselves kings of Scotland also. Until a few years ago, at the beginning of the laws which were made by Parliament, and which had to do with England alone, and not with Scotland, it was written that the law was to be obeyed in **England and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed.**

But we must get back to King Edward and his army. The king was everywhere victorious. He beat the Scots in the great battle at **Falkirk** (1298), where the English archers, who afterwards became so famous, broke the ranks of the Scots with their flights of arrows. The English army got as far as **Scone**, and took thence the famous Stone, called "*The Stone of Destiny*," upon which the Kings of Scotland had always been crowned. Edward brought the stone to Westminster, where it was placed under the Coronation Chair built by his order for the King of England, and there we may see it to this day if we pay a visit to Westminster Abbey.

But defeat taught the Scots a good lesson which they were not slow to learn. Their quarrels were for a time put aside, and all Scotsmen began to join together against the English enemy.

It was at this time that a great leader arose among the Lowland Scots, a man whose name is justly famous throughout Scotland to this day. This leader was **William Wallace**. His courage, his skill, and his fierce hatred of the English, all helped to make him a great hero in the eyes of the Scots. He had the most wonderful adventures, his life was often in danger, but over and over again he surprised and defeated the English troops.

He did what was even more important than this. He put courage into the hearts of his countrymen, and he made them feel that it was a right and good thing to fight, and if necessary to die, for their country. A great Scotsman has written a wonderful book which contains the story of the adventures of William Wallace. Everyone should read this book. It is called "*The Tales of a Grandfather*," and it is written by **Sir Walter Scott**.

But despite the bravery of Wallace, there seemed little chance for Scotland as long as Edward I. was alive. Wallace himself was taken prisoner, sent to London, and put to death (1305), and Edward, though he had now grown old and feeble, marched with a great army towards Scotland determined to put down the Scots once more, and for all.

But the old man's strength was fast failing. He was carried in a litter as far as Cumberland, and reached a little place named Burgh-on-Sands, from which he could see Scotland. But here ended his journey and his life. He died before he could cross the border (1307).

The first Edward was a great and wise king, and had he lived Scotland would hardly have escaped conquest. But his death saved Scotland, for his son who came after him was as weak and unfortunate as his father was strong and successful.

CHAPTER XXV.

EDWARD II.—“THE MAKING OF SCOTLAND.”

1307-1327.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF
EDWARD II.

Edward II., King of England, fourth son of Edward I. and Eleanor of Castile, b. 1284, became King 1307, d. 1327.

Isabella, daughter of Philip IV., King of France, and wife of Edward II., m. 1308, d. 1358.

Edward, Prince of Wales, son of Edward II., afterwards King of England, b. 1312.

John, Earl of Cornwall, son of Edward II., died when a child.

Eleanor, daughter of Edward II.

Joan, daughter of Edward II., married David Bruce, son of Robert the Bruce, King of Scotland.

Robert the Bruce, Baron Skelton, and Earl of Annandale, b. 1274, became King of Scotland 1306, d. 1329.

Piers Gaveston, favourite of Edward II., a Gascon knight, executed by the Barons 1312.

Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, cousin to Edward II., and uncle to Queen Isabella, the leader of the Barons against the King, executed 1322.

Hugh Despencer, favourite of King Edward after the death of Gaveston, beheaded by Roger Mortimer, Earl of March, 1326.

James Douglas, fought under Robert the Bruce at Bannockburn, killed in Spain 1330.

Philip IV., King of France, d. 1314.

Edward Bruce, brother of Robert Bruce, d. 1318.

Dante (the Italian poet), d. 1321.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF EDWARD II.

1307. Edward becomes king, and makes Gaveston his favourite.

1308. Gaveston banished by Parliament, directed by Thomas of Lancaster.

1309. Return of Gaveston from Ireland.

1310. The Barons unite against the King, and form a Council, called “The Lords Ordaine s.”

1311. Gaveston again banished.

1312. War between the King and the Barons, Gaveston beheaded.

1314. Edward undertakes an expedition for the relief of Stirling.

Great defeat of the English by Robert Bruce at Bannockburn.

1315. Edward Bruce, brother of Robert Bruce, invades Ireland, and declares himself King of Ireland.

1318. Edward Bruce killed in Ireland.

1321. Edward makes Despencer his favourite.

War between the King and the Barons.

1322. Overthrow of the Barons. Capture and execution of Thomas of Lancaster.

1323. Peace concluded with Scotland.

Roger Mortimer escapes from prison, and takes up arms against the King.

1325. Queen Isabella joins the rebel Barons.

1326. Defeat and flight of the King.

1327. The King deposed and imprisoned in Berkeley Castle. Murder of Edward,

Edward II

It is not easy to imagine a man more innocent and inoffensive than this unhappy king,¹ nor a prince less fitted for governing that fierce and turbulent people subjected to his authority."—Hume.

THE reign of **Edward II.**⁽²⁰⁾ son of Edward I.,⁽¹⁹⁾ is not a pleasing one for an Englishman to read about. It is a story of bad government and violence and defeat.

It was a long reign, lasting from 1307 to 1327, and there is much that might be told about it, but we have only space here to speak at length of one great event for which it must be remembered.

We said in an earlier chapter that during the reigns of the three Edwards, we should find the story of "*The Breaking of Wales*," "*The Making of Scotland*," and "*The Ruin of France*." It was in the reign of Edward II. that the Making of Scotland took place.

We saw at the end of the last chapter how Edward I., angered at the resistance of the Scots, had marched northward with a great army, intending once more to subdue them. We saw how Edward died within sight of Scotland, and how that country was freed from fear of an attack by its greatest and most powerful enemy.

It is impossible to say what might have happened to Scotland had Edward I. lived long enough to lead his army into the country a second time. Edward was a brave and skilful soldier, and had already won great victories both in Wales and Scotland; but the man who came after him was as weak as Edward I. was strong. He was no soldier, and had neither the power nor the wish to lead armies in battle. It was a great gain to Scotland that the king against whom her people had now to fight was so different from the great King Edward.

But there was another thing which was even more fortunate for Scotland than the death of Edward I. We shall remember that when Margaret, the "Fair Maid of Norway," died, no fewer than thirteen persons came forward to claim the throne of Scotland. Among them were **John Balliol**, whom Edward had made king, and **Robert Bruce**.

We saw how, when Balliol had offended King Edward, the English king marched against him and drove him from his throne. We also saw how, when **Wallace** came forward to fight for his country, he in turn

¹ Edward II.

was attacked and defeated by Edward. Nor should we have forgotten how **Robert the Bruce**, the grandson of Robert Bruce of whom we read just above, was one of the barons who rode with the English king, and who fought against the Scots under his banner.

When, however, Balliol had been driven from the throne, and Wallace had been defeated and put to death, there came a change.

William Wallace, by his bravery and success, had put courage into the hearts of the Scots, and the idea of freeing their country altogether from the English, and from the power of the English king, had grown quickly among them. The time had come when Bruce could hope to claim the crown of Scotland, and he determined to do so. At first secretly, and then openly, he deserted the English party, and soon placed himself at the head of the Scots who had followed the brave William Wallace, and of all those who were ready to fight for Scotland against the English.

No sooner had **Robert Bruce** put himself at the head of the Scottish army, than the hopes of Scotland began to brighten. There is no name of which Scotsmen are more proud than that of Robert the Bruce, and rightly so: for he was indeed the man who did more than any other to free their country and to defeat their enemies.

Bruce was a man of great strength and courage, tall and handsome, and skilled in all the arts of war. He had also learnt how to win the love and trust of the Scottish people. The history of Scotland is full of stories of the bravery and adventures of Robert the Bruce; and both Robert and Bruce have been favourite names in Scotland ever since the days of the great king.



Bannockburn.

*"And the best names that England knew
 Claim'd in the death-prayer dismal due.
 Yet mourn not, land of fame!
 Though ne'er the leopards¹ on thy shield
 Retreated from so sad a field
 Since Norman William came.
 Oft may thine annals justly boast
 Of battles stern by Scotland lost;
 Grudge not her victory,
 When for her free-born rights she strove—
 Rights dear to all who freedom love,
 To none so dear as thee!"—Scott: "Rokeby."*

Thus we see that, on the death of Edward I., matters looked more hopeful for the Scots than they had done for a long time past. At first they feared lest the English army which lay upon the border should continue its march upon Edinburgh; but the new King of England, who cared little for success in war, gave up the task which his father had begun, and returned to London. He soon showed himself unfit to rule. He took as his friend and favourite an unworthy man, named **Piers Gaveston**. He loaded Gaveston with favours; nor was this all. He allowed Gaveston to insult the proud barons who had been faithful servants to Edward I., and who saw with anger the riches and the power which were being given to an upstart stranger.

A long quarrel followed, between the king and Gaveston on the one side, and the barons on the other, which ended at last in the death of Gaveston. The barons joined together, and by force compelled the king to dismiss his favourite from all his offices. Nor were they content with this. Some of the fiercest of the barons, led by the **Earl of Warwick**, seized Gaveston themselves and put him to death (1312).

But while the king and the barons were thus quarrelling between themselves, the government of England was going from bad to worse. Men ceased to fear the king or to obey his orders. Instead of fighting against the enemies of the country, the best soldiers in England were fighting against each other. Nothing was done to help the English soldiers in Scotland, and Robert Bruce was now fighting

¹ 1h. "Leopards" or "Lions" in the coat of arms of England.

fiercely against them in every part. Town after town was taken from the English, till at last only the strong fortress of **Stirling** was left to them. The Governor of Stirling Castle, **Sir Philip Mowbray**, a brave soldier, sent a message to King Edward. "If you do not come and help me before midsummer," said he, "I must give up your castle to the Scottish king."

Then at last King Edward was forced for very shame to try and do



STIRLING CASTLE AT THE PRESENT DAY.
(From a photograph by G. W. Wilson & Co., Aberdeen.)

something to save his last fortress in Scotland. He raised a great army, and the barons, eager to regain what Edward I. had won, came from all parts to follow the king. The first thing to do was to reach Stirling, where the brave Sir Philip Mowbray was shut up. But between the English border and Stirling Castle lay Robert the Bruce with his army. Soon the two armies came face to face. On the English side there were not less than **100,000** men, of whom 3,000 were clad in armour. Among them were the greatest nobles in England. King Edward himself was at the head of the army, but he was not a general like his father, and it would have been better for England if he had stayed behind.

The army of the Scots numbered **40,000** men. At their head were **Robert the Bruce, James Douglas, and Randolph**. There is no space here to tell the story of Douglas or Randolph, but we must not forget their names, for we shall find them very often when we come to read the history of Scotland. They were three brave and practised generals, and those whom they led were ready to follow them to the death.

The place at which the two armies met was the village of **Bannockburn**. It was on the 24th of June, in the year 1314, that the great battle which has made Bannockburn so famous was fought. A story is told of an adventure which befell Bruce the night before the battle, and which shows us what kind of man he was.

There was a knight among the English, called Sir Henry de Bohun, who thought this would be a good opportunity to gain great fame to himself, and put an end to the war, by killing King Robert. The king being poorly mounted, and having no lance, Bohun galloped on him suddenly and furiously, thinking, with his long spear, and his tall powerful horse, easily to bear him down to the ground.

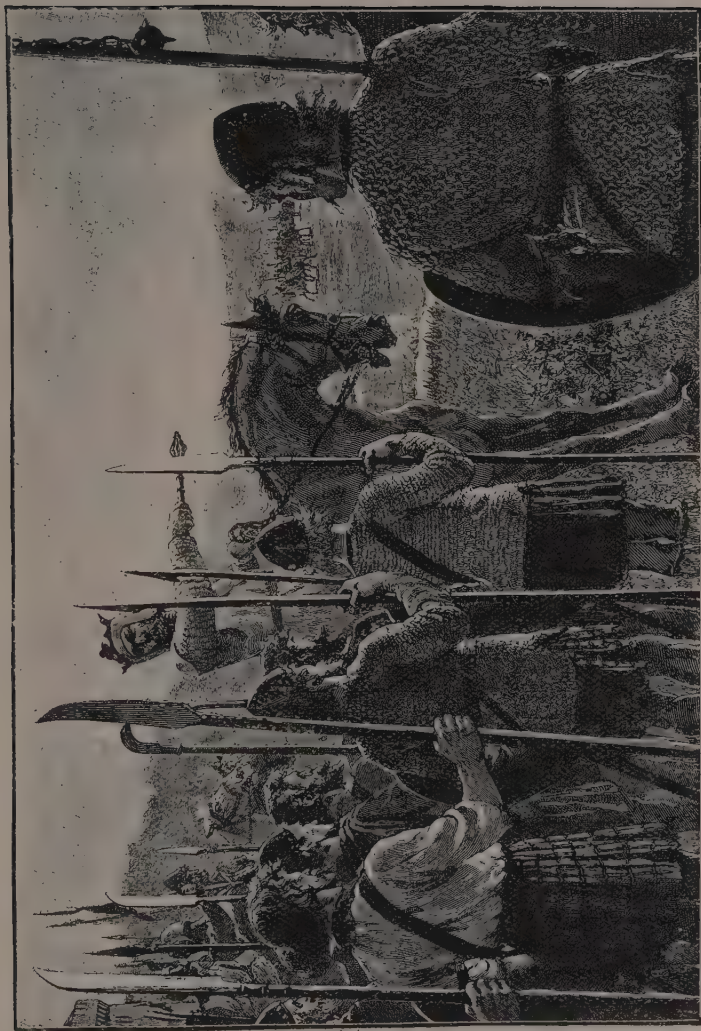
King Robert saw him, and permitted him to come very near; then suddenly turned his pony a little to one side, so that Sir Henry missed him with the lance-point, and was in the act of being carried past him by the career of his horse. But as he passed, King Robert rose up in his stirrups, and struck Sir Henry so terrible a blow on the head with his battle-axe that it broke to pieces his iron helmet as if it had been a nutshell, and hurled him from his saddle. He was dead before he reached the ground.

This gallant action was blamed by the Scottish leaders, who thought Bruce ought not to have exposed himself to so much danger, when the safety of the whole army depended on him. The king only kept looking at his weapon, which was injured by the force of the blow, and said, "I have broken my good battle-axe."¹

The next day, the **24th of June**, the battle began. The English archers rained arrows upon the enemy, but the Scottish horsemen rode in among their ranks, cut them down, and dispersed them. Then the English horsemen came on at the charge, and they, too, soon fell into confusion.

The night before the battle, the Scottish king had given orders that steel spikes, or caltrops, as they were called, should be scattered about on the grass, and that pits should be dug. As the heavily-armed English horse came on at full speed, their feet were pierced by the caltrops, and they fell headlong into the pits which had been prepared.

¹ Part of the account on this page is taken from Sir Walter Scott's "Tales of a Grandfather."



BANNOCKBURN : BRUCE REVIEWING HIS TROOPS BEFORE THE BATTLE.

While the troops were in confusion, the Scots fell upon them, and soon it was clear that the battle was lost for the English. The king himself turned and fled. With great difficulty he reached the sea at **Dunbar**, after riding sixty miles at full speed. Thirty thousand of the English were killed, and all the waggons of provisions belonging to the English army fell into the hands of the Scots. It was a great defeat for England, and a great victory for Scotland.

From that time forward Robert Bruce was hailed by all as King of Scotland; and from his time down to the reign of **James VI. of Scotland** (three hundred years) the kingdom of Scotland held its own against all enemies. Nor did Scotland ever again come under a foreign king.

When King James VI. left Scotland it was only to go to England, there to reign as King of England as well as of Scotland; and ever since the happy day when England and Scotland became united together under one king, the two countries have been but one—not because one country had beaten the other in war, but because the people in both were agreed that "*in union there is strength.*"¹

The reign of Edward II. was as unfortunate for the king himself as it was for his country. He quarrelled again and again with the barons and at last he was taken prisoner by them, deprived of his crown, and shut up in Berkeley Castle (1327). There he was cruelly murdered; but there were few among his subjects who regretted that this weak and unwise king had been driven from his throne.



CHAPTER XXVI.

EDWARD III.—"THE RUIN OF FRANCE."

1327-1377.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF EDWARD III.

Edward, King of England, son of Edward II. and Queen Isabella, b. 1312, became King 1327, d. 1377.
Philippa of Hainault, wife of Edward III., m. 1328, d. 1369.
Edward the Black Prince, eldest son of Edward III., b. 1330, d. 1376.
Lionel, Duke of Clarence, b. 1338, d. 1368.

John of Gaunt, b. 1340.
Edmund Langley, Duke of York, b. 1341.
Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, b. 1355, and two other sons and four daughters.
Isabella, widow of Edward II., d. 1358.
Roger Mortimer, friend of Queen Isabella, hanged 1330.
Robert Bruce, King of Scotland, d. 1329.

¹ James VI. of Scotland became James I. of Great Britain and Ireland in the year 1603.

David Bruce, son of Robert Bruce, d. 1371.
Joanna, wife of David Bruce, and sister of Edward III., d. 1362.
Edward Balliol, claimant to the crown of Scotland, supported by Edward III., crowned King of Scotland 1332, resigned the crown 1356.
Philip the Fortunate, King of France, d. 1350.
John II., King of France, taken prisoner at Poitiers, d. 1364.
Charles V., King of France.
Eustace de St. Pierre, one of the six burghers of Calais who submitted to Edward III.

Sir Walter Manny, Edward's most successful general, d. 1372.
Bertrand du Guesclin, a great French general.
Sir John Chandos, a great English soldier, d. 1369; took Bertrand du Guesclin prisoner at the battle of Najara, in Spain, 1367.
Robert Stuart, grandson of David Bruce, became King of Scotland 1371. The first of the Stuart kings.
Jean Froissart, a great French historian, who wrote "Froissart's Chronicles." Lived long in England, d. 1410.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF EDWARD III.

- | | |
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| <p>1327. February 1st, Edward III. becomes King.
 Isabella and Roger Mortimer regents.
 1330. Isabella imprisoned and Mortimer executed.
 1332. Edward assists Edward Balliol against David Bruce, and invades Scotland.
 1333. Edward defeats the Scots at Halidon Hill. Balliol proclaimed King of Scotland.
 1336. Second Expedition into Scotland.
 1337. Commencement of the <i>Hundred Years' War</i>.</p> | <p>1340. War with France. The English fleet defeats the French fleet at Sluys.
 1342. War with France renewed.
 1346. Victory of Crécy.
 King David of Scotland taken prisoner at the battle of Neville's Cross.
 1347. Capture of Calais.
 1356. Victory of Poitiers. Truce with France.
 1359. Second Invasion of France.
 1360. Treaty of Bretigny.
 1367. Battle of Najara.
 1376. The "Good" Parliament.
 Death of the Black Prince.
 1377. Death of Edward III.</p> |
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The Beginning of the Great War.

*"Fly, countrymen and citizens of France!
 Sweet-flow'ring peace, the root of happy life,
 Is quite abandon'd and expuls'd the land:
 Instead of whom ransack-constraining war
 Sits raven like upon your houses' tops;
 Slaughter and mischief walk within your streets,
 And, unrestrain'd make havoc as they pass."*

From the Play of "Richard III.," written about 1596.

THIS chapter is entitled "*The Ruin of France*" because it tells us of the beginning of the great war which lasted for one hundred years, and which brought ruin and desolation to France. Those who lived at the time tell us of the misery which the French people went through; how their fields were laid waste, how their houses were burned down, how thousands were killed in battle, and how many thousands more died of the famine which followed the laying waste of the fields.

But though the story tells us of the ruin of France, it tells us also of one very good thing that happened to the French people during these

long years of war and suffering. It often happens that out of evil there comes good, and so it was in this case. For many years before the reign of Edward III.,⁽²¹⁾ the French people had fought amongst themselves, and the kingdom of France had been divided up into a number of small divisions—kingdoms, duchies, and counties—each under a separate king, or duke, or count.

In the case of **Normandy**, the duke had been not only an enemy to the King of France, but was himself King of England. The dukes of **Burgundy** and **Berry** were rivals of the King of France; and though, at the time of Edward II.'s death, Normandy no longer formed part of the dominion of the English king, yet a great piece of the south of France, called **Guienne**, was still claimed by the King of England.

The wise reign of Louis IX., whose death took place in 1270, when Henry III. was King of England, had done much to strengthen and unite France; but much more had to be done before France became a really united nation. It was only when the French people were obliged to fight for their lives and their liberties against the foreign armies of **Edward III.**⁽²¹⁾ and **Henry V.**⁽³⁶⁾ of England, that they really began to understand that all quarrels at home must be set aside until the foreign enemies had been driven out of France. We shall see, when we come to the reign of **Henry VI.**,⁽⁴¹⁾ how they did at last put aside all their quarrels, and did succeed in turning the English out of France.

Now we must see how it came about that the French began to learn this lesson in the reign of Edward III. The reign of Edward II. was taken up, as we know, with the Scottish war. The English barons had never forgiven the Scots for the defeat at Bannockburn, and by the time Edward III. had come to the throne they were ready and willing once more to march into Scotland. Robert Bruce was dead (1329), and his son **David** had neither the courage nor the wisdom of his father. **Edward Balliol**, son of John Balliol, who, as we may remember, was king before Robert Bruce, made his way into Scotland and attacked David Bruce. David fled and Balliol was declared king.

But he did not long remain king. He was unwise enough to promise to do homage to Edward III. The Scots could not forgive him for this, and he in his turn was driven from the throne. All these quarrels and misfortunes in Scotland had given a great advantage to the English, and when Edward III. again crossed the border it seemed as if he were going to repeat the victories of his grandfather, Edward I. Indeed, there can be little doubt that if England had only had to fight Scotland at this time, Scotland would soon have lost all that it had won at Bannockburn,

But fortune favoured Scotland. It was at this time that a quarrel broke out between England and France, and Edward had to turn his attention to a more dangerous enemy than David Bruce. Both sides were ready to quarrel, and so it was not hard to find an excuse. The King of France declared that the Scots were his allies, and that he was bound to help them. King Edward replied that the Scots were his enemies, and that if the French helped them, they were his enemies too; and what was more, he said that if right were done, he himself ought to be King of France, and not Philip, who then sat upon the French throne.

It matters little nowadays what were the rights or the wrongs of the quarrel. Both sides were ready for the fight, and if one excuse had not been enough, they would soon have found another.

Crécy.

*"Lances in rest; Advance banners; Archers, bend your bows; cry,
'St. George for England!'"*

The war began. French ships took English merchantmen in the Channel. Edward sent out an English fleet, and for the first time English sailors beat the French at sea. Then Edward crossed over to France with an army of 30,000 men, and landed at **La Hogue**. He intended to march into Flanders, where he hoped to find his allies, but he was only able to advance with great difficulty, and he lost many men from sickness or in battle.

At last he reached a little village called **Crécy**, which we shall see marked on the map on page 234. Here he halted his army, hoping to receive help from his allies. But the King of France was close by with a large army. At the head of no less than **120,000** men, he marched rapidly from **Abbeville** towards **Crécy**. The English soldiers, who were about **20,000** in number, were drawn up in order by the king. They were in three divisions, one of which was in command of Edward,⁽²²⁾ Prince of Wales (eldest son of the king), who was at this time only sixteen years old.

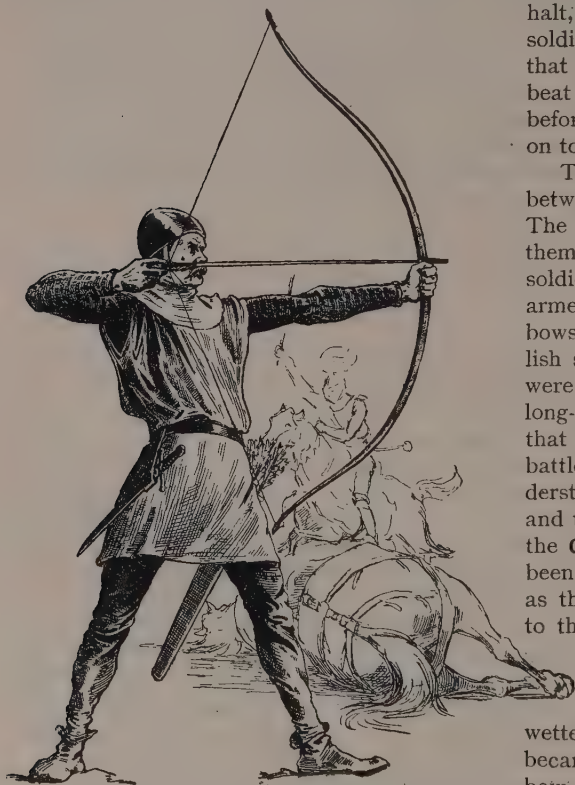
It was the 26th of August, 1346. The king, mounted on a white horse, rode through the ranks early in the morning, cheering up his men, and telling them how great would be the glory if they gained the victory over this great French army.

By this time the French were getting nearer. When they came

within a few miles of Crécy, Philip sent on an officer to find out where the English army was, and how it was arranged. The officer came back and said that the English were in good order, and had had time to rest. It would be better, he thought, to wait a day and let the French soldiers rest too. Philip commanded his army to

halt; but the French soldiers, who believed that they would easily beat the small army before them, pressed on to the attack.

The battle began between the archers. The French had with them 15,000 Italian soldiers from Genoa, armed with cross-bows. On the English side, the archers were armed with the long-bow. It is said that just before the battle, a great thunderstorm took place, and that the bows of the **Genoese**, who had been marching as fast as they could to get to the field of battle, got wetted with the rain. When they were thus wetted, the strings became slack, and the bow would no longer shoot as hard and as straight as it did be-



ENGLISH ARCHER ARMED WITH THE "LONG BOW."

fore. The English archers, on the other hand, had kept their **long-bows** dry in their cases. After the storm was over, the bows were drawn forth, and they shot as strong and as true as ever. It was soon seen that on this day, at any rate, the *long-bow* was a better weapon than the *cross-bow*.

The English archers shot so fast that, as an Italian who wrote an account of the battle says, "*It seemed to snow.*" The Genoese could bear it no longer; they cut their bow-strings, threw away their bows, and turned to fly. As they fled, they broke in amongst the French horsemen, and all was confusion. Then the French cavalry came under the storm of arrows, and many of them fell pierced even through their armour. As they fell from their horses, the Cornish men and Welshmen who were with King Edward stabbed them on the ground. When the French king saw that his archers had given way, he ordered his knights to charge, and a great battle took place between the knights and men in armour on both sides.

In the middle of this fight was the **Black Prince**. He fought bravely, and was in great danger of his life. So great was his danger, that the Earl of Warwick sent a messenger to King Edward begging him for help. "*Is my son dead?*" said the king. "*Not so,*" replied the messenger, "*but he needs help.*" "*Nay, then,*" said the king, "*he has no aid from me. Tell him that I know that he will bear him like a man, and show himself worthy of his knighthood.*" The prince did indeed show himself worthy of his knighthood, for at last he and those who were with him succeeded in putting to flight the French and making victory certain.

King Philip himself rode full speed from the field of battle. It was dark when he reached the castle of **Broye**. He blew with his horn at the castle gate. The warder on the castle walls called out into the darkness, "*Who comes there on such a night?*" "*It is the Fortune of France,*" said the king; and almost alone, "**Philip the Fortunate,**" for so men had called him, escaped with bare life from the field of Crécy.

A Chapter of Victories.

"Telling me—

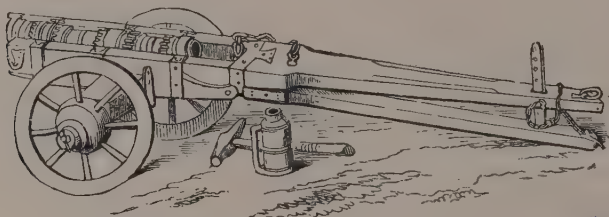
*it was great pity, so it was,
That villainous saltpetre should be digg'd
Out of the bowels of the harmless earth,
Which many a good tall fellow had destroy'd
So cowardly; and, but for these vile guns,
He would himself have been a soldier."*

Shakespeare: "King Henry IV.," Part I.

The story of the battle of Crécy has been told at some length for several reasons. In the first place, Crécy was a very great and

memorable fight, of which Englishmen have a real right to be proud. The French lost on that day two kings—the Kings of Majorca and Bohemia—11 princes, 80 bannerets, 1,200 knights, and 30,000 men. In the second place, the success which Edward won on the field of Crécy no doubt encouraged him to go on with the cruel war which for a hundred years made England and France bitter enemies.

And, lastly, there is one other thing which makes Crécy very memorable among the many battles of which history tells us. If we had been upon the battle-field of Crécy we should have heard all the fierce and terrible noises which are always to be heard upon a battle-field; the shouts of those who are fighting, the cries and groans of the wounded, the trampling of the horses, and the clash of arms.



CANNON OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

But at Crécy we should have heard another sound, different from all these other noises, a sound which was not heard at Hastings, at Bannockburn, nor at any of the great battles which had already taken place in the history of England. We should have heard a loud, deep report, which came from neither man nor horse. It was not the sound of charging cavalry, nor yet that of the clash of steel.

What was this sound? It was **the thunder of the Cannon**, heard for the first time in any battle in which English soldiers were engaged. For the first time, at the battle of Crécy, the gunpowder which some say **Roger Bacon**, an English monk, first showed English people the use of, and which was certainly quite new to the world, was used in cannon.

The cannons were small, weak affairs, made of wood, hooped with iron. The balls which they threw were scarcely larger than a cricket-ball, and no doubt the long-bow and the broad-sword killed many hundreds more at the battle of Crécy than did the cannon.

But from that day onwards the power of gunpowder began to grow greater than that of the long-bow and the broad-sword, until at last in

our own day the arrow is forgotten, and the sword has become little more than an ornament.

The great thing to remember about the use of gunpowder is not that more people have been killed in battle since gunpowder was used—for indeed, it is probable that quite as many men were killed in the old battles as in the battles which are fought now—but that gunpowder did this: it made the weak equal to the strong, and the small equal to the great.

No amount of strength will protect a man against a rifle bullet or a cannon shot, and a rifle will shoot quite as hard if it be held by a small and a weak man as when it is held by a giant. We shall see, as we read our English history, how, from the time of the battle of Crécy, the knights in armour, who had been masters of all the world up to that time, gradually lost their power as their strength and their armour ceased to protect them.

Crécy, however, was not the only great victory which was won by the English during the reign of King Edward III. In the year 1333 King Edward defeated the Scottish army at **Halidon Hill**. In 1340, seven years later, an English fleet defeated a French fleet at **Sluys**, off the coast of Flanders, or Belgium as we now call it. In 1347, after the battle of Crécy, King Edward took the town of **Calais**, after a siege which lasted twelve months; and in 1356 a great victory was won by the English over the French at **Poitiers**, in which **John**, King of France, was taken prisoner. In 1360 peace was at last made with France at **Bretigny**, but the terms of the peace were not kept to by either side, and the war went on.

The reign of Edward III. was a very splendid one, if we think only



GUNPOWDER PUTS THE WEAK AND THE STRONG ON EQUAL TERMS.

of the victories which were won by English armies under his command. It is quite right to be proud of these victories, for they were won by our forefathers against great odds, and every Englishman should be proud that he belongs to the same race that won the victories of Crécy and Poitiers. We, however, must not forget that the war was a cruel and perhaps a useless one. A very large part of France was ruined and laid waste, and England too was much weakened by the loss of men and money. But while we regret the war, we can still admire the courage and skill of King Edward and of his warlike son, the Black Prince. King Edward III. was certainly one of the greatest of our kings.

The king died in the year 1377, in the fifty-first year of his reign.

CHAPTER XXVII.

RICHARD II.

1377—1399.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF RICHARD II.

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| <p>Richard II., King of England, son of Edward the Black Prince, and grandson of Edward III., b. 1366, became King 1377, deposed 1399, reigned 22 years.</p> <p>Anne of Bohemia, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV. of Germany, first wife of Richard II., m. 1382, d. 1394.</p> <p>Isabella, daughter of Charles VI., King of France, second wife of Richard II., m. 1396.</p> <p>John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, Regent of the Kingdom, son of Edward III., and uncle of King Richard, d. 1399.</p> <p>Edmund of Langley, Duke of York, son of Edward III. and uncle of the King, d. 1402.</p> <p>Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, son of Edward III., and uncle of King Richard, d. 1397.</p> | <p>Michael de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, Richard's Minister, d. 1389.</p> <p>Henry Bolingbroke, son of John of Gaunt and cousin of King Richard, afterwards King of England, b. 1366.</p> <p>Gregory XI., Pope, d. 1370.</p> <p>Charles VI., King of France (called <i>Bien-aimé</i>, or "The Well-Beloved"), 1380-1422.</p> <p>John Wycliffe, an Oxford preacher, b. 1321, d. 1384.</p> <p>Wat Tyler, leader of Kentish insurgents, killed 1381.</p> <p>Sir William Walworth, Lord Mayor of London, d. 1381.</p> <p>Timour the Tartar, sometimes called Tamerlane.</p> <p>Geoffrey Chaucer, a great poet, b. 1328, d. 1400.</p> |
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PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF RICHARD II.

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| <p>1377. Richard II. becomes King, June 22nd. A Spanish force lands in the Isle of Wight, and a Spanish and French fleet sails up the Thames to Gravesend. John Philpot, Alderman of London, collects a fleet at his own cost, and defeats the Spanish and French.</p> <p>1380. War in France.</p> | <p>1381. Wycliffe preaches against the priests. Wat Tyler's rebellion.</p> <p>1382. Richard marries Anne of Bohemia. Wycliffe condemned by the Pope.</p> <p>1384-5 War in Scotland and in Ireland.</p> <p>1386. Michael de la Pole, Richard's Minister, impeached.</p> <p>1387. John of Gaunt makes himself Regent.</p> |
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| <p>1388. The "Wonderful" or "Merciless Parliament."
 Battle of Otterburre, or "Chevy Chase," between the English and Scots.
 1389. Richard takes the government into his own hands.
 1394. Death of Queen Anne.
 1396. Richard marries Isabella, daughter of the King of France.
 The King causes John of Gaunt to be taken prisoner.</p> | <p>1398. Quarrel between Bolingbroke and the Duke of Norfolk. Richard banishes them both.
 Tamerlane, or Timour the Tartar, invades India, captures Delhi, and puts 100,000 persons to death.
 1397. Bolingbroke returns and defeats the King.
 Death of John of Gaunt.
 The King deposed, imprisoned at Pontefract Castl., and (probably) murdered.</p> |
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Wat Tyler.

*"And you, that love the Commons, follow me.—
 Now show yourselves men: 'tis for liberty.
 We will not leave one lord, one gentleman:
 Spare none but such as go in clouted shoon,
 For they are thrifty honest men, and such
 As would (but that they dare not) take our parts."*

"King Henry VI., Part II."

RICHARD II.⁽²⁹⁾ came to the throne after the death of Edward III. He was the grandson of Edward III. and son of Edward the Black Prince, who died before his father.

King Richard was an unfortunate and an unwise king, and his life ended in misery and disgrace. There is not room here to tell the story of his reign at great length, but there were one or two very important things that happened in it which cannot be left out.

Richard was only eleven years old when he came to the throne. The most powerful man in the country was the king's uncle, **John of Gaunt**,⁽²⁵⁾ Duke of Lancaster, the fourth son of King Edward III. The king had two other uncles, **The Duke of York**,⁽²⁷⁾ and **The Duke of Gloucester**.⁽²⁸⁾ The three brothers, John of Gaunt, Edmund of York, and Thomas of Gloucester, played a great part in the story of Richard's reign.

One of the most remarkable events which took place in the reign of Richard II. was the rebellion which was got up by Wat Tyler (1381). We shall remember that during the reign of Edward III. there had been much fighting between England and France, and between England and Scotland. These long wars had cost much money, and heavy taxes had to be raised to pay for them. The people were poor, and they found these taxes very burdensome. One

tax in particular was most unpopular. This was the Poll Tax, which was a tax of twelve pence upon every head or "poll" in the country; that is to say, it had to be paid by every person over fifteen

years of age. Twelve pence does not seem very much nowadays, but in the time of Richard II. twelve pence was worth as much as eighteen shillings in our time. The collection of the Poll Tax gave rise to great discontent, and at last led to open rebellion.

One day the tax-collector came to the house of a man named Walter the Tiler, or "**Wat Tyler**" as he was called, who lived in the town of Dartford in Kent. He asked Wat Tyler to pay a heavy tax, and at the same time added to Wat's anger by insulting his daughter. In a fury Wat knocked the man down and killed him. The townspeople approved the deed, and soon the news of it spread far and wide, and all those who were discontented praised the Tiler of Dartford for what he had done. Soon, from all the southern and eastern



RICHARD II.

(From the portrait in Westminster Abbey.)

counties of England the people began to gather together, and at last in a great body, 60,000 strong, they set off to march to London. Wat Tyler was put at the head of the people's army, and he led them to Blackheath, which is close to London. By this time there were no less than 100,000 men gathered together. The king and his court, and all the wealthy people of London, were greatly alarmed, especially when they

heard that Wat Tyler and his friends had declared that they would upset the Government, take all they wanted from the rich, and divide what they took among the poor.

Although the followers of Wat Tyler had much to complain of, and they did some violent things, they were not all robbers and plunderers, as the people of London thought they were; many of them were honest men who really wanted to get right done to them, and they believed that the king was on their side and would help them. They asked for four things: 1. That they should no longer be made **slaves** to any man, nor be compelled to give their work without payment. 2. That the **rent** of the land they lived upon should be paid in money, and that they should no longer be compelled, as they often were, to do work as payment for their rent. They frequently found that the work which they were made to do was really worth much more than the rent which they owed. 3. That they should be **free to buy and sell** where they liked, and to take their goods freely to market. 4. That **none of them should be punished** for what they had done since the rebellion began.

The king met the people, and gladly promised to grant these things if they would go home. Most of them were content with the promise, and many went home; but **Wat Tyler** and **Jack Straw**, another leader, and some of the worst men among them, would not go home. They marched to London; they got possession of the Tower of London; they threatened the king's mother.

Richard himself rode out to meet them. He found them in front of St. Bartholomew's Church in Smithfield. There were 20,000 men, and Wat Tyler was at the head of them. Wat Tyler went up to the king, bidding his followers stay till he gave them a sign; they were then to come forward and kill all but the king. "*He is young,*" said Wat Tyler; "*we can do with him as we please; we will lead him with us all about England, and so shall we be lords of the kingdom without doubt.*"

As Wat Tyler was speaking to the king, there came up **Sir William Walworth**, Mayor of London, with twelve horsemen. He was angry with Wat Tyler, and he cried out, "*Ha! thou knave; darest thou speak such words in the king's presence?*" Tyler made a sharp answer, and Walworth at once killed him with his sword. At first it seemed as if the crowd would avenge the death of their leader. "*They have killed our captain,*" they cried, and they bent their bows. Then Richard with great courage and readiness rode forward, saying, "*Sirs, what aileth you? I will be your leader and captain. Follow me, for I am your king.*" The people, pleased with Richard's courage, did what he bade them, and soon dispersed again to their own homes. And thus came

to an end what seemed at one time to be a very dangerous rebellion. As to the promises which the king had made, some were fulfilled; but most of them, unfortunately, were broken and forgotten.

The end of Richard's reign was less happy than the beginning. He was a mere child when he came to the throne, and during his early years he had submitted to be ruled by his uncle, **John, Duke of Lancaster**, commonly known as **John of Gaunt**.⁽²⁵⁾ But after Wat Tyler's rebellion had been put down, Richard, who had reached the age of manhood, determined to take the reins of government in his own hands. He found little difficulty in carrying out his resolves, for John of Gaunt, while governing in the king's name, had made himself unpopular in the country. The king appointed new ministers chosen from among his own friends. The chief of the new ministers was **Michael de la Pole**, who received the title of **Earl of Suffolk**. Richard further strengthened his own position by his marriage with **Anne of Bohemia**, daughter of the emperor. John of Gaunt, deprived of Richard's favour, was compelled to take refuge in flight, and the king seemed for the time to be master of the situation. But the departure of the Duke of Lancaster had really only left the field open to his brother **Thomas, Duke of Gloucester**.⁽²⁶⁾ Thomas, who it will be remembered was the youngest son of King Edward III.⁽²¹⁾ was greatly offended at the king's choosing De la Pole as his minister. De la Pole had been a merchant and did not belong to one of the great families of the nobles, and Thomas was easily able to persuade his friends among the nobility that their rights and their power were likely to be endangered if such persons as the Earl of Suffolk were allowed to hold the highest offices in the kingdom.

The Banishment of Bolingbroke.

*"Herald.—Harry of Hereford, Lancaster, and Derby,
Stands here for God, his sovereign, and himself;
On pain to be found false and recreant,
To prove the Duke of Norfolk, Thomas Mowbray,
A traitor to his God, his king, and him;
And dares him to set forward to the fight."*

Shakespeare: "King Richard II."

It was not long before a party was formed among the nobles. At the head of it was **Thomas, Duke of Gloucester**, and its leaders were

the **Earls of Warwick, Arundel, and Nottingham**, and **Henry of Bolingbroke**,⁽³²⁾ son of John of Gaunt. The first step taken by the new party was to "appeal" the king's ministers of treason,¹ and hence they came to be called "*Lords Appellant*." They took up arms to enforce their claims, seized the king, and called together a Parliament, the members of which they knew would be favourable to their cause. The **Earl of Suffolk** fled from the country, several of the ministers were put to death, and the king was compelled for a time to bow to the storm which he could not resist. It was not long, however, before he found an opportunity of avenging the insult which had been put upon him. In the year 1387 he reached the age of twenty-one, and he soon showed that he was determined to prove to all the world that he had come of age and could act for himself.

One day as he sat in his great Council he turned to his uncle the Duke of Gloucester, with these words, "*How old do you think I am?*" "*Your Highness,*" replied the duke, "*you are in your twenty-second year.*" "*Then,*" said the king, "*I surely am old enough to manage my own concerns. I have been longer under the control of guardians than any ward² in my dominions. I thank you, my Lords, for your past services, but I require them no longer.*"

Richard was not long in giving effect to his words. The Duke of Gloucester and the other Lords Appellant were dismissed from their offices, and a king once more chose his own ministers from among his own friends.

Queen Anne had died in the year 1394, and Richard now further strengthened his position by a marriage with Isabella, daughter of King Charles VI. of France (1396). The marriage was not popular among the English people, but it proved an advantage to the king because it insured, for the time at any rate, peace with France and left the King free to deal with his enemies at home.

For a time Richard seemed content with the victory he had won, but in reality he was only waiting until he should be strong enough to punish the man who had so grievously offended him. He was content to wait ten years until his opportunity came; but in the year 1397 he struck the blow he had so long intended. Gloucester, Arundel, and Warwick were charged with plotting a new rebellion. Arundel was beheaded, Gloucester was thrown into prison and murdered while there, Warwick was banished. For a time it seemed as if Bolingbroke and Nottingham would escape. The king even showed them special favour, and made the one *Duke of*

¹ To charge them with being guilty of high treason.

² Ward, or minor, a person under twenty-one.

Hereford, and the other *Duke of Norfolk*. But he had not forgotten his grudge, and he skilfully contrived a quarrel between the two dukes. It was decided that after the custom of the times the quarrel should be settled by a fight between the two parties, and arrangements were made for a tournament to be held in the presence of the king at which the Dukes of Hereford and Norfolk were to meet in single combat. At the last moment, however, and just as the two combatants had entered the lists, the king threw down his staff between them, and ordered the heralds to stop the fight. This done, he sentenced Norfolk to banishment for life, and Hereford to banishment for ten years.

It seemed at length as if the king had freed himself from all his enemies, but, as events showed, this was far from being the case. The Duke of Gloucester and the Earl of Arundel were dead, and "dead men tell no tales" and do no mischief, but **Bolingbroke**, though banished from the country, was still alive and eager to regain the power he had lost, and the estates from which his father, John of Gaunt, and he had been driven.

Before long a favourable opportunity arose. In the year 1399 Richard started at the head of an expedition to Ireland. English rule in that country was threatened by an armed rebellion, and the king determined to go over himself to restore order. But in those days a voyage to Ireland was often a matter of many days, and the king, once on the other side of the Irish Channel, soon lost his power over the government in London. His enemies at once saw that the time had come when they might safely return and claim their own again.

While Richard was still in Ireland, Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford, landed at **Ravenspur** in Yorkshire. At first he declared that he sought nothing but the restoration of his father's estates, but success soon taught him to claim a still greater prize. He was joined by the **Earl of Northumberland**, and by his son **Henry Percy**, known on account of his hasty and impetuous character as "*Harry Hotspur*." He soon was surrounded by a considerable army. The news of this fresh rebellion reached Richard in Ireland and he hastened to return. But the wind was contrary, and many days passed before he was able to set up his standard in England. It was then too late, and his enemies were too powerful to be resisted.

Despairing of success, he gave himself up to the Earl of Northumberland, and shortly after, yielding to the threats of his enemies, he consented to abdicate the crown in the hope of saving his own life. Parliament was persuaded to declare that the claim of Henry Bolingbroke to the crown of England was a good one, and to proclaim

him King. Richard was confined a close prisoner in Pontefract Castle, and there he was murdered. For a long time after his death many people believed that he was still alive, and that he would one day return and take the crown. Nor were all doubts removed when the new king, anxious to prove to all men that his rival was no longer to be feared, caused the body of Richard to be brought up from Pontefract and publicly exhibited to the people of London. There were still some who said that the body was not that of the king, but of some person who resembled him. But as time passed on, the fact of Richard's death ceased to be disputed, and there can indeed be no doubt that he was put to death shortly after his imprisonment in Pontefract Castle. He ceased to reign in the twenty-third year after his accession to the crown.

Geoffrey Chaucer.

*"Dan Chaucer, well of English undefyled,
On Fame's eternal bead roll Worthie to be fyled."*

Spenser: "Faërie Queene."

There are three things that we must bear in mind when we read of the reign of Richard II., for they are all of great importance in English history.

About the year 1328, fifty years before Richard came to the throne, there was born **Geoffrey Chaucer**, the first great English poet. The name of Chaucer will always be remembered, for two reasons. First, he was a real and great poet, whose best known poem—"The *Canterbury Tales*"—is still read with pleasure by thousands of Englishmen.

In the poem we read how a number of travellers met on their way to the tomb of Thomas A' Becket at Canterbury. They met at an inn, and as they ride along the road together they tell each other stories, and give an account of their adventures. There are a **Sailor**, a **Farmer**, a **Priest**, the **Landlord** of the inn, a **Soldier** or **Knight**, a **Student**, and many others. Their stories are very amusing, and they are also very interesting, because we learn from them just how people lived, what they thought and talked about, how they dressed, how they made their money, and how they spent their money five hundred years ago. We can learn a great deal more history from the stories in Chaucer's "*Canterbury Tales*" than we can from many history books. We see that there is every reason for remembering Chaucer, because he was a great poet.

The other reason for which he must be remembered is that he

was really the first great writer who wrote English in the way in which we now speak it. Before his time there were a great many people, chiefly the rich, the barons, and the courtiers, who talked *French*, or a language very like French. The poorer people, and most of the merchants and tradesmen, who were of Saxon families, talked *English*, but English very different from what we speak now, and when they wrote, they wrote in *Anglo-Saxon*, which we should find it very difficult to understand at the present time.

But gradually those who spoke French, and those who spoke Anglo-Saxon, got mixed up together, and as they got mixed up, the language they spoke also got mixed, and soon a new language came to be used, which was neither French nor Anglo-Saxon, but which was made up of both. This language was really the **English Language** which we talk now, and in which there are very many Norman and French words, and a still greater number of Saxon words.

This new language was spoken before Chaucer's time, but he was the first person to write it down in the form of poetry. When it was once written down, other people followed the example, and wrote in the same way, and thus began the writing of all those tens of thousands of English books which have been written and read in England since the time of Chaucer.

The Black Death—John Wycliffe.

*"As thou these ashes, little brook! wilt bear
 Into the Avon, Avon to the tide
 Of Severn, Severn to the narrow seas,
 Into main ocean they, this deed accurst
 An emblem yields to friends and enemies
 How the bold teacher's doctrine, sanctified
 By truths shall spread throughout the world dispersed."*

Wordsworth: "To Wycliffe."

We said that there were three special things to be remembered about the reign of Richard II. One is the life and writings of Geoffrey Chaucer, the second is the "**Black Death**." The Black Death was a terrible sickness which spread over England and Ireland between the years 1348 and 1407. Thousands of people died of it in a very short time. It is said that over a million persons died of this terrible disease in England alone.

The third thing to be remembered is the life and death of **John Wycliffe**.

John Wycliffe was born in Yorkshire in the year 1324. He was a great preacher and teacher of the people. Many of the priests at that time were bad and ignorant, and he preached against them, saying that men should live better lives, and that many of the things which the priests taught were untrue.

He had many followers, who were known as "*Lollards*." The great work for which Wycliffe is known is his **translation of the Bible** into English. This Bible was not the same as that which we use now, and very few copies of it were made, for in the time of Wycliffe nobody in England knew how to print books. But we must not forget that Wycliffe was the first English translator of the Bible. Wycliffe died in 1384, and was buried at **Lutterworth**, in Leicestershire.

After his death his bones were dug up and burnt by order of the Pope, and his ashes were thrown into the little river "Swift" which runs past Lutterworth. But though Wycliffe was dead, and his bones burnt, the work he had done was not forgotten.

His ashes were thrown into the Swift, the Swift bore them into the Avon, the Avon to the Severn, the Severn to the Sea, and the Sea to the Wide World; so has his name been carried down in English history, till it has become one which all readers of English history throughout the world now know and are proud of.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

HENRY IV.

1399—1413.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF HENRY IV.

Henry IV., son of John of Gaunt and Blanche of Lancaster; and grandson of Edward III., b. 1366, became king 1399, d. 1413, reigned 14 years.

Mary Bohun, first wife of Henry IV., m. 1381, d. 1394.

Henry, son of Henry IV., afterwards King of England, b. 1388.

Thomas, Duke of Clarence, son of Henry IV.

John, Duke of Bedford, son of Henry IV.

Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, and two daughters.

Joanna, daughter of Charles, King of Navarre, second wife of Henry IV., m. 1403, d. 1437.

Owen Glendower, leader of the Welsh insurrection, d. 1415.

Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, great-grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, third son of Edward III., and the true heir to the throne on the death of Richard, b. 1392.

Archibald Douglas, leader of the Scottish army.

The Earl of Northumberland, father of Harry Hotspur, d. 1408.

Harry Hotspur, son of the Earl of Northumberland, d. 1403.

Robert III., King of Scotland, d. 1406.

James Stuart (James I. of Scotland), son of Robert.

Charles VI. (The Well-Beloved), King of France.

Sir William Gascoigne, Chief Justice of the King's Bench.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF HENRY IV.

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| <p>1399. September 30th, Henry crowned King. Henry sets aside the claim of the Earl of March, the true heir to the throne. Insurrection by the friends of King Richard II.</p> <p>1400. King Richard II. said by some to have been murdered at Pontefract Castle in this year. Expedition into Scotland. Insurrection of Owen Glendower in Wales.</p> <p>1402. Harry Percy (Hotspur) destroys the Scottish army, under Archibald Douglas, at Homildon Hill.</p> | <p>1403. Alliance of Percy and Douglas in support of the cause of the Earl of March. Hotspur joins Owen Glendower. Henry defeats the rebels at Shrewsbury. The Earl of Northumberland and Owen Glendower in revolt against the King are defeated at Bramham Moor, in Yorkshire.</p> <p>1409. Final defeat of Owen Glendower.</p> <p>1411. Henry joins in the quarrel between the King of France and the Duke of Burgundy.</p> <p>1413. Death of Henry IV.</p> |
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A Troubled Reign.

"Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown."

Shakespeare: "Henry IV.," Part II.

THE reign of **Henry IV.** is an interesting and important one, and for several reasons. In the first place it must be remembered that Henry was not the true heir to the throne, and that he had by force dethroned and imprisoned **Richard**, the rightful king, and indeed after Richard's death it was not Henry but the descendants of **Lionel, Duke of Clarence**,⁽²³⁾ who, by the law and custom of England, ought to have succeeded to the crown. One of these descendants was living. His name was **Edmund Mortimer**,^(35a) Earl of March, who was the *great-grandson* of Lionel, Duke of Clarence. Henry knew well that his own claim was not a good one, and it was for this reason that he made haste to call together a Parliament, and to get from it a declaration that he was the true heir. Parliament could not indeed alter the fact, but it could do much to strengthen the hands of the new king by giving him its support.

But Parliament did not give its support for nothing. Over and over again during King Henry's reign Parliament made demands upon the king, which he granted because he knew that his power depended not upon his own good title, but upon the support of Parliament. He thus did many things which he would certainly never have done had he felt himself quite firm upon his throne, and Parliament gained more power during his reign than it had possessed for many years past.

The reign of Henry IV. is interesting for another reason. As we have just read, he was not the true heir to the crown, and he lived in constant fear of losing in war what he had won by war. By his skill and bravery he gained a victory over his various enemies at home, and was able to hand on the crown to his son. But he was never free from

the fear of civil war, and we shall see that in the end this fear of war at home led his son to begin a war abroad which he thought would turn people's minds away from the questions which had led to so much quarrelling at home. There seems little doubt that the long war with France, which began in the reign of Henry's son, was in a



HENRY IV.

great part owing to the uncertain title by which King Henry held his crown.

It was indeed not long before civil war broke out again in England, and Henry, who had attacked and defeated Richard the lawful king, now found himself attacked in turn in more than one quarter. Within a few months of his coronation a rising took place on

behalf of King Richard, but Henry easily put it down, and the **Earls of Kent and Huntingdon**, who were the rebel leaders, were taken and executed.

The next rebellion was a more serious one. It began in Wales, where a Welsh gentleman named **Owen Glendower**, a former follower of King Richard, put himself at the head of an army, and declared himself Prince of Wales and crossed the English border. With the Welsh alone it would not have been difficult to deal, although Glendower proved himself a formidable leader, and the skill with which he escaped pursuit earned for him among the English soldiers the name of "The Magician." But matters became much more serious when the Scots, in their turn, rose on behalf of King Richard who, they declared, was still alive. Luckily the English Parliament was still in a good humour with the king, and sufficient money was found to put an army into the field. An English force under the Earl of Northumberland, and his son **Harry Percy**, or "*Hotspur*," met the Scots and totally defeated them at the battle of **Homildon Hill** in Northumberland (1402), and the famous Earl of Douglas was taken a prisoner by Hotspur.

But out of the victory grew yet another trouble for the king. Henry ordered Hotspur to hand over his prisoner Douglas to him, but this Hotspur refused to do, and the quarrel between the king and the great house of Northumberland soon became so bitter that at last the Percies, with their prisoner Douglas, openly joined a party of rebels, and made common cause with Owen Glendower and with Edmund Mortimer, uncle of the Earl of March, who had now become an ally of the Welsh leader, and had given him his daughter in marriage. With all these enemies arrayed against it, the royal cause seemed to be in great danger. Fortunately for Henry, his enemies were divided in their councils, and had not really all the same end in view. Fortunately, also, the people of England were not very eager to support the party which had among its leaders a Welsh chief and a Scottish earl both long known as bitter enemies of England, and which received help from France, sent by Queen Isabella, the widow of Richard II.

The king advanced against the rebels, who at once declared **Edmund Mortimer**,¹ the young Earl of March, to be the true king, and prepared

¹ **Edmund Mortimer**,^(35a) the young Earl of March, was at this time only a boy of eleven years of age. If we look at the table on page 266, we shall see that he was the true heir to the crown, his father, Roger Mortimer, having been killed in the year 1398. His title came to him through Philippa, the daughter of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, who, as we have seen, was the third son of Edward III. His title was clearly a better one than that of the descendants of John of Gaunt, or of Edmund, Duke of York.

to maintain their cause in battle. Like a good general, Henry managed to meet his enemies before they could unite their forces. He attacked the army of the Percies at **Shrewsbury** (1403) before Glendower with his Welsh troops could come up. The battle ended in the entire defeat of the rebel army. Hotspur was killed and Douglas was taken prisoner. The loss on both sides was very great, and included very many gentlemen of name.

But even after this success the troubles of King Henry were by no means over. The Earl of Northumberland was pardoned, but both the Scots and the Welsh remained in arms; and the French, taking full advantage of the disturbed state of England, made fierce attacks upon the coast. **Jersey** and **Guernsey** were taken by them. A French expedition landed in Plymouth Sound and burnt the town of **Plymouth**. Another expedition landed in the **Isle of Wight**. The English in their turn sent out ships to attack the French coast, and there was fierce fighting all down the Channel. The Scots were still threatening, but the danger from that quarter was diminished by the capture of **James**, the heir to the crown of Scotland. The young prince was on his way to France when the ship which bore him stopped off Flamborough Head. He was taken from the ship, made prisoner (1405) by order of King Henry and brought to London, where he was kept till the end of Henry's reign.

From this time forward the dangers which threatened the king grew less. Not that the civil war was by any means over. **Northumberland**, though he had been pardoned and received into favour, had by no means forgotten his old quarrel. He escaped to Wales from Scotland, and shortly afterwards reappeared in the north of England at the head of an army. He was, however, met by the royal troops and defeated at **Bramham Moor**, near Arthington, in Yorkshire (1408), and was killed in the battle. The French continued to attack England, and a French fleet, sailing into Milford Haven, brought aid to the Welsh under Glendower. For a time this strange alliance between Welshmen and Frenchmen baffled the royal troops, but not for long. The command of the army in Wales was given to the king's eldest son, young Henry of Monmouth,⁽³⁶⁾ who showed, in the war that followed, the bravery and some of the military skill which afterwards made him famous as a victor in the great battle of Agincourt.

In the year 1409 the struggle ended, the Welsh were defeated, and the country compelled to submit to the English rule. The French were no longer able to do mischief, for France itself was distracted by civil war and had no time for interfering with the affairs of other countries. It seemed as if at last Henry had obtained rest and peace, but the rest he had so hardly won he was not able to enjoy. He was attacked by

the terrible disease of leprosy, and the last few years of his life were passed as a bedridden cripple. On the 20th of March, 1413, he died in a fit, in the Jerusalem Chamber, Westminster Abbey.

The story of his last moments is told in Shakespeare's play of *Henry IV.*, Act iv., Scene 5, of the Second Part, which contains the famous scene of young Harry of Monmouth sitting by his father's bedside under the belief that the life of the old king had passed away, and placing on his own head the golden crown. But the king still lived, and with returning consciousness saw the act of his son, and rebuked him in the words which, as Shakespeare records them, are so dignified and touching.

The prince, starting at finding that his father is still alive, says—

"I never thought to hear you speak again."

Then the king answers him thus—

"Thy wish was father, Harry, to that thought;
I stay too long by thee, I weary thee.
Dost thou so hunger for mine empty chair,
That thou wilt needs invest thee with mine honours
Before thy hour be ripe? O foolish youth!
Thou seek'st the greatness that will overwhelm thee."

Whether or not this strange scene really took place is not certain. It is doubtful, too, whether the story be true, which represents Henry of Monmouth, before he came to the throne, as a wild young man, keeping bad company and following lawless courses; it is certain, however, that the crown which Henry IV. had won by force, and had fought so hard to keep, passed on to his son without difficulty, and with the full agreement of the people of England.

Henry IV. was twice married. His first wife was Mary Bohun, daughter of the Earl of Hereford. She died in 1394. Nine years later, in 1403, Henry married Joanna, daughter of Charles, King of Navarre, who survived her husband.

One very evil thing in the reign of Henry IV. must be remembered. It was in his day that persecution for religion received special encouragement from the law. The teaching of Wycliffe had borne fruit, and there was a large party in the country who refused to believe all that was told them by the priests. They believed that the Church had become corrupt, and that great changes were needed. Those who held these views were known as **Lollards**.¹ They soon aroused the enmity of the bishops, who gave them their name, and, who declaring

¹ Lollards, from the Dutch *lollard*, a mumblor of prayers,

that they were "tares" in the wheatfield, and must be rooted out, set to work to persecute them. At the request of the bishops, Parliament passed an Act¹ punishing the heretics, as the Lollards were called, with the penalty of death.

CHAPTER XXIX

HENRY V.

1413-1422.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF HENRY V.

Henry V., eldest son of Henry IV. and Mary Bohun, King of England, b. 1338 at Monmouth, and therefore sometimes called Henry of Monmouth, became king 1413, d. 1422, reigned 9 years.

Catherine, daughter of Charles VI., King of France, wife of Henry V., m. 1420, afterwards wife of **Owen Tudor**, m. 1423.

Henry, son of Henry V. and Catherine, afterwards King of England, b. 1421.

Charles VI., King of France, d. 1422.

Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, an ally of the English.

The Duke of Bedford, brother to King Henry.

Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March, great grandson of Lionel, third son of Edward III., and the true heir to the throne, d. 1424.

The Earl of Suffolk, killed at Agincourt 1415.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF HENRY V.

- 1413. Henry V. crowned king.
- 1414. Henry lays claim to the crown of France.
Parliament votes money for a war with France.
- 1415. Henry lands in France. The Duke of Bedford made Regent of England.
Sept. 22. Henry takes Harfleur.
Oct. 25 (St. Crispin's Day), battle of Agincourt.
John Huss, the great Bohemian Reformer, burnt at Prague.
- 1416. An English fleet under the Duke of Bedford defeats the French fleet off Harfleur.
- 1417. Second expedition of Henry into France.

- 1418. Siege of Rouen.
- 1419. Capture of Rouen.
The French make friends with the Burgundians, their former enemies, and join them against the English.
- 1420. Henry marries Catherine of France.
Peace with France.
- 1421. Henry and Catherine return to England.
The French with the aid of Scottish mercenaries, defeat an English army at Beaugé.
Henry's third expedition into France.
Successful campaign in France.
Birth of Henry VI. of England.
- 1422. Death of Henry at Vincennes, in France.

¹ *De Heretico Comburendo*, or "Concerning the Burning of Heretics." From that day forward, and for many years, the wicked and cruel practice of burning men to death on account of their religious opinions was practised in England,

Agincourt.

*"Upon St. Crispin's day
Fought was this noble fray,
Which Fame did not delay
To England to carry;
O when shall English men,
With such acts fill a pen,
Or England breed again
Such a King Harry?"*

Michael Drayton (1563-1631): "Ballad of Agincourt."

HENRY V. stands out as an heroic figure in the history of England. During his lifetime he won the praise which is always accorded to the young, the successful, and the brave. His brilliant victory over the French made him a popular hero in his lifetime, and the misfortunes which overtook England after his death, under the feeble rule of his son, made men look back with regret to the "brave days of King Harry," and contrast the splendour of his rule with the humiliation and disaster of their own time. There was much in Henry's character to justify the admiration of his people. He was brave, open, and straightforward, and, above all, successful in war, but there can be little doubt that the country paid a great price for the glory which he won. In the fifteenth century England was a small and poor country compared with France, and the opportunity which enabled Henry to take advantage of the divisions among Frenchmen, and to make himself master for a time of half the kingdom of France, left England drained of men and money, and utterly unable to retain the prize which her soldiers had won.

But that Henry was popular, and indeed beloved, during his lifetime can scarcely be doubted, and he had no sooner ascended the throne than he gave ample proof of his desire to reign justly, and to put an end to those internal quarrels which during his father's lifetime had divided the kingdom. A story is told of Henry when he was still a young man, before he became king, which deserves to be remembered. It is said that one of the prince's gay companions was one day arrested for some brawl, and brought before Gascoigne, the Lord Chief Justice. The young prince, angry at his friend's capture, and believing that, as a son of the king and heir to the throne, he would be able to terrify the Chief Justice, appeared in the court,

and, with threatening words, laid his hand upon his sword, and ordered the judge to release the prisoner.

But Gascoigne remembered that the law is no respecter of persons. So far from releasing the prisoner, he gave orders that Henry himself should be sent to gaol for daring to insult one of the king's judges. To prison, therefore, the prince went, according to the story, and to his credit it is said that, instead of blaming the act of the judge, he recognised the courage and wisdom which Gascoigne had shown. When King Henry IV. was told of what had happened, he said, "Happy is the king who possesses a judge so resolute in the discharge of his duty, and a son so willing to yield to the authority of the law."

One of the first acts of the new king on ascending the throne was to send for the Chief Justice, to assure him that he bore no ill-will towards him and to receive him into his favour.

Nor was this the only proof that he gave of his respect for the law. Unluckily, he extended his favour equally to bad as well as to good laws. We have seen how in the two previous reigns a sect known as the "**Lollards**" had grown up, and how the teaching of **Wycliffe** had fixed itself in the minds of many men. The archbishops and bishops fearing lest the teaching of the Lollards should diminish the power of the Pope and draw people away from the Church, had persuaded Henry IV. and his Parliament to pass a savage law by which "heretics" might be burned to death for their opinions. It was not long before Henry V. was persuaded in his turn to attack the Lollards, who soon found themselves the object of terrible persecutions. **Sir John Oldcastle**, afterwards known as **Lord Cobham**, was a man of distinction and a personal friend of the king's, but he was a Lollard, and had not hesitated to attack the Pope and the clergy, and to declare himself a follower of Wycliffe. He was tried and condemned, and imprisoned in the Tower, whence he managed to escape, but was at length recaptured, and was put to death, with many of his followers (1417).

There were, however, greater difficulties to be encountered at home than the enmity of the Lollards, and Henry well knew that the only way of escaping from the endless civil wars which had distracted the kingdom during his father's reign was to turn the thoughts and the weapons of Englishmen against a foreign enemy. From the outset he had determined upon a war with France. It was not hard to find a pretext, and whether the pretext were a good one or a bad one mattered little. As the heir to Edward III. he boldly claimed the crown of France. The French at that time, divided by internal

quarrels, sought to avoid war, and offered him the hand of a French princess, the French province of Aquitaine, and a large sum of money in satisfaction of his claim.

But Henry would have all or none. He refused the offer and declared war. Parliament was summoned and voted money, and the



THE ENGLISH DOMINIONS IN FRANCE IN THE TIME OF HENRY V.

Church, grateful for Henry's punishment of the Lollards, gave large sums towards the war. Whatever may be thought of the cause of the quarrel or of the consequences of the war, there can be no doubt that the campaign which now took place was one of which Englishmen may well be proud. An English army under an English king successfully invaded the kingdom of France, and though ill supplied, moving in an enemy's country, and confronted by great odds, achieved a victory which startled all Europe.

It was on the 25th October, 1415,¹ that the two armies met in the battle which decided the campaign. The English army, exhausted with constant marching, ill-fed, and reduced in numbers, came upon the enemy close to the castle of **Agincourt**. The records of what took place upon that day are clear and certain, and they tell us of a victory more complete and more surprising than any which had ever been won by an English army over a civilised enemy. The two armies were most unequal in numbers. The French had 50,000, the English 15,000; and yet, rather than have cowards or unwilling men in his ranks, Henry bade all those who feared to risk their lives to go home before the fight began. The French loss amounted to 10,000 killed and 14,000 prisoners, that of the English to 1,500.

Some of the finest lines in Shakespeare are about King Henry and the battle of Agincourt.

The poet tells us how, the morning before the battle, the Earl of Westmoreland, seeing how small the English army was, exclaimed—

“O! that we now had here
But one ten thousand of those men in England,
That do no work to-day!”

Then King Henry replies—

‘What’s he, that wishes so?
My cousin Westmoreland?—No, my fair cousin:
If we are marked to die, we are enough
To do our country loss; and if to live,
The fewer men, the greater share of honour.
God’s will! I pray thee, wish not one man more.
By Jove, I am not covetous for gold;
Nor care I who doth feed upon my cost;
It yearns me not if men my garments wear;
Such outward things dwell not in my desires:
But, if it be a sin to covet honour,
I am the most offending soul alive.
No, ’faith, my coz, wish not a man from England:
God’s peace! I would not lose so great an honour,
As one man more, methinks, would share from me,
For the best hope I have. O! do not wish one more!
Rather proclaim it, Westmoreland, through my host,
That he that hath no stomach to this fight,
Let him depart; his passport shall be made,
And crowns for convoy put into his purse:
We would not die in that man’s company,
That fears his fellowship to die with us.

This day is call'd the feast of Crispian :
 He that outlives this day, and comes safe home
 Will stand a-tip-toe when this day is named,
 And rouse him at the name of Crispian.
 He that shall live this day, and see old age,
 Will yearly on the vigil feast his friends,
 And say, 'To-morrow is St. Crispian' ;
 Then will he strip his sleeve and shew his scars,
 And say, 'These wounds I had on Crispian's day.'
 Old men forget; yet all shall be forgot,
 But he'll remember, with advantages,
 What feats he did that day. Then shall our names,
 Familiar in their mouths as household words,—
 Harry the king, Bedford and Exeter,
 Warwick and Talbot, Salisbury and Gloster,—
 Be in their flowing cups freshly remembered :
 This story shall the good man teach his son,
 And Crispin Crispian shall ne'er go by,
 From this day to the ending of the world,
 But we in it shall be remembered :
 We few, we happy few, we band of brothers.
 For he to-day that sheds his blood with me
 Shall be my brother; be he ne'er so vile,
 This day shall gentle his condition ;
 And gentlemen in England, now a-bed,
 Shall think themselves accursed they were not here,
 And hold their manhoods cheap, while any speaks
 That fought with us upon Saint Crispin's day."

In the city of Oxford there stands the famous **College of All Souls**, and in the chapel of the college there is a lofty screen covered with life-sized statues. The college and the chapel alike are memorials of the battle of Agincourt. It was in memory of those who fell on that famous field that the chapel was built, in order that perpetual prayers might be made, after the fashion of that time, for the souls of those who had fallen fighting for England. The stone figures which were put up in the time of Henry V. have been broken and destroyed, but in later days new statues have been erected in their places, and to this day the chapel of All Souls' College, Oxford, remains to commemorate the victory won on St. Crispin's day so many centuries ago.

A second campaign still further strengthened Henry's hold upon France. Normandy was taken, and in 1420 Henry married Catherine, daughter of the King of France, receiving a promise at the same time that he should succeed to the throne of France on the death of Charles VI. But a great nation like the French can never be long kept down under foreign conquerors, however powerful and however able.

No sooner had Henry returned to England than the war broke out again, and a third expedition had to be undertaken. To the last the king's good fortune stood him in good stead, and once more victory attended his arms; but the strain and exposure of his warlike life told upon the king's health. He fell sick, and on the 31st August, 1422, he died at the castle of Vincennes, close to Paris.

From the day of his death the English power in France, which his genius had maintained, steadily declined. The great kingdom which he had claimed and won melted away in the feeble grasp of his successor, till nothing remained to bear witness to his splendid military genius save the suffering of a wasted land, and the poverty of an exhausted people. Englishmen had yet to learn the lesson that it was as impossible for England to keep down and govern France, as it would be for Frenchmen to keep down and govern England.

CHAPTER XXX.

HENRY VI.—"THE FREEING OF FRANCE."

1422-1445.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF HENRY VI.

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| <p>Henry VI., son of Henry V. and Catherine of France, sometimes called "Henry of Windsor," b. 1421, became king (at the age of nine months) 1422, d. 1471.</p> <p>Margaret of Anjou, wife of Henry VI., daughter of René, King of Naples in Italy, m. 1445.</p> <p>Edward, Prince of Wales, son of Henry VI. and Margaret, killed 1471.</p> <p>Catherine, widow of Henry V., and mother of Henry VI., d. 1433.</p> <p>Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman, second husband of Catherine, widow of Henry V., m. 1423, d. 1461.</p> <p>Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, son of Owen Tudor, and father of Henry VII., King of England.</p> <p>Charles VII., King of France, 1422-1461.</p> <p>Joan of Arc, "The Maid of Orleans," b. 1412, burnt 1431.</p> <p>John, Duke of Bedford, uncle of Henry VI., and general of the English troops in France, d. 1435.</p> <p>Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester ("the Good Duke Humphrey"), uncle of Henry VI., Regent of England together with Bedford, d. 1447.</p> | <p>Cardinal Beaufort, one of the Regents with Bedford and Gloucester, d. 1447.</p> <p>Richard, Duke of York, grandson of Edmund Langley, great-grandson of Edward III., leader of the Yorkists, killed at Wakefield 1460.</p> <p>Edward, son of Richard, Duke of York, b. 1442, afterwards King of England.</p> <p>Richard, Duke of Gloucester, son of Richard, Duke of York, and brother of Edward, afterwards King of England, b. 1452.</p> <p>Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, a leader of the Yorkists, sometimes called "The King Maker," and "The Last of the Barons," b. 1428, killed 1471, at Barnet.</p> <p>Jack Cade, leader of "Cade's Rebellion," when the rioters marched to London, taken and killed 1450.</p> <p>John Fust and John Gutenberg, of Mentz, in Germany, who set up the first printing press, and made the first metal types for printing, 1442-1450.</p> <p>William Caxton, first English printer, b. 1421.</p> <p>Christopher Columbus, who discovered America, b. in Genoa 1436.</p> <p>Mahomet II., Sultan of the Turks 1451-1453.</p> |
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PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF HENRY VI.

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| <p>1422. Henry VI. becomes king.
Charles VII. becomes King of France.</p> <p>1423. James, King of Scotland released by Henry.
Marriage of Queen Catherine to Owen Tudor.</p> <p>1424. War in France.
Bedford Regent in France.</p> <p>1428. The Earl of Salisbury besieges Orleans.</p> <p>1429. Joan of Arc visits the King of France.
Joan of Arc leads the French troops and relieves Orleans.
Charles crowned at Rheims.</p> <p>1430. Capture of Joan of Arc.</p> <p>1431. Trial and execution of Joan of Arc.
Further disasters to the English army in France.</p> <p>1438. Death of Queen Catherine.</p> <p>1445. Marriage of Henry VI. and Margaret of Anjou.</p> <p>1450. Jack Cade's Rebellion.</p> <p>1451. Quarrel between the Duke of Somerset and the Duke of York.</p> <p>1453. Loss of all the English dominions in France except Calais.
Birth of Edward, Prince of Wales.
King Henry becomes imbecile.
The Turks under Mahomet II. take Constantinople, May 29th.</p> <p>1455. Beginning of the Wars of the Roses.
Victory of the Yorkists at St. Albans.
Truce between York and Lancaster.</p> <p>1460. The Yorkists take up arms but are dispersed.
Defeat and capture of Henry at Northampton.
Margaret raises an army, and defeats the Yorkists at Wakefield.</p> | <p>Richard, Duke of York, killed at Wakefield.</p> <p>1461. Defeat of the Yorkists at St. Albans.
Prince Edward, son of Richard, Duke of York, defeats the Lancastrians at Mortimer's Cross, near Hereford, and marches to London.
Edward declares Henry to have forfeited the Crown, and is proclaimed King as Edward IV.
Defeat of the Lancastrians at Towton.
Edward crowned in London.
Margaret seeks aid in France.</p> <p>1464. Margaret takes up arms again. Lancastrians defeated at Hexham.
Edward marries Elizabeth Woodville, widow of Sir John Grey.</p> <p>1470. Insurrection against Edward. Edward taken prisoner by the Earl of Warwick, and imprisoned in Middleham Castle.
Edward released and replaced on the throne.
Edward defeats Warwick. Warwick offers his help to Queen Margaret.
Warwick raises an army for King Henry.
Flight of Edward to Holland, and entry of Warwick into London.</p> <p>1471. Return of Edward, battle of Barnet, and death of Warwick.
Victory of the Yorkists at Tewkesbury.
Death of Edward, son of Henry and Margaret.
Imprisonment of Margaret in the Tower.
Death of Henry VI.</p> |
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The "Maid of Orleans."

"I have come to ask that I may be taken to the King; he cares not for me or my words; nevertheless, ere mid-Lent comes I must be before the King, even though I have to wear my legs to the knees in journeying to him. For no one in the world, neither King, nor Duke, nor Scottish Princess,¹ nor any other, can recover the Kingdom of France; nor is there any succour for it save me alone, though rather would I stay at home and spin by my poor mother's side . . . but go I must, because such is the wish of the Lord."—*Chronicle of Joan of Arc.*

WHEN **Henry V.** died he was master of France. The English dominion covered the whole of the great piece which is marked on the map

¹ A marriage between the Dauphin Louis and the daughter of the King of Scotland was then under discussion. The Scottish king had promised to send aid to Charles VII.

(p. 234), and after the battle of Agincourt it was no idle boast for a King of England to call himself King of France.

But what Henry V. won, Henry VI. lost. **Henry VI.**,⁽⁴¹⁾ who came to the throne on his father's death, was but a child nine months old, his little head, too small to wear the crown of England, was crowned with his mother's bracelet. While the little Henry was king in name, his uncles, the **Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester**, together with **Henry Beaufort**, Bishop of Winchester, really had the kingly power, and were made "*Regents*" of the kingdom.

Henry's life was long and unhappy, a time of war and suffering. In the story of English history it will always be remembered as the reign in which we lost France. In the history of France it is remembered as the time of victory, a glorious time for the French people.

The most interesting person we have to do with in the reign of Henry VI. is neither the King of England nor the King of France, but a young French girl who was born and brought up far away from courts and palaces. In one of the chief streets of the great city of Paris there is a statue of this young girl. She is seated on a powerful war-horse, she is dressed in armour, and in her hand she holds a sword. Her name is one of the most honoured names in the whole of France. It is **Joan of Arc**, the peasant girl of **Domrémy**, who saved her country.

The story of Joan can only be told very shortly here. Her father was a labourer, and Joan was employed during the day in looking after his sheep. Like many another young Frenchwoman of her time, she thought with sorrow of the misfortunes of her country, and longed to see it freed from its English enemies.

As she thought and dreamed of a better time, she fancied that an angel brought her a message that the happier time was coming, and that she was to take a part in bringing it about. She told the neighbours, and the neighbours laughed at her, but the neighbours were wrong and Joan was right; for, after all, her own heart had spoken to her truly, and she, the little shepherdess, was really going to do a great work for France.

She made up her mind that she would go straight to **Charles**, the King of France. The king was at **Chinon**. It was a long journey to get there, and many were the dangers which Joan had to encounter on the road; but at last she reached the king's court. She told him that she had come to save France: "*and you,*" said she, "*shall be crowned King of France in your own city of Rheims.*"

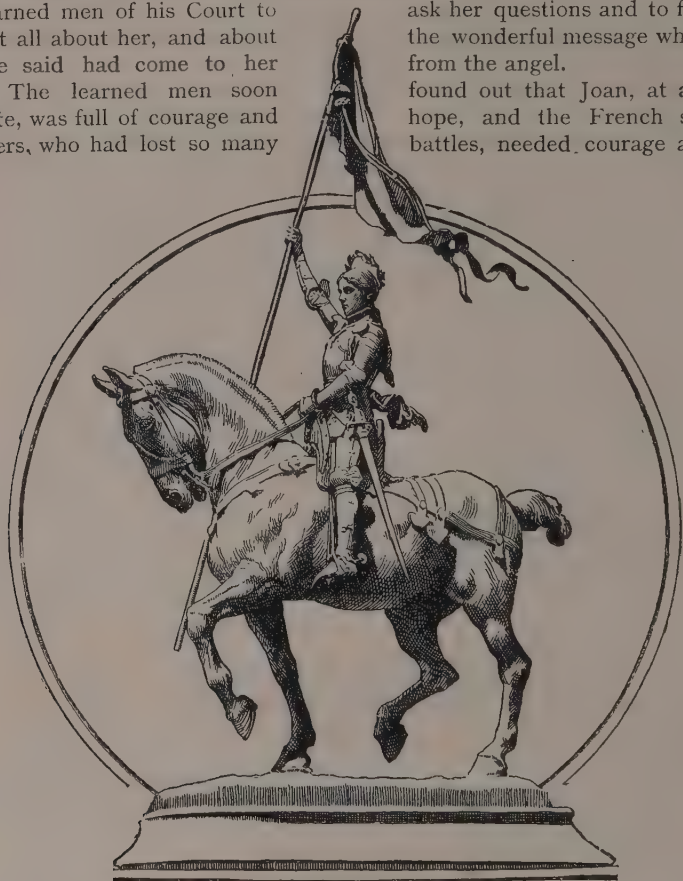
Now of this there seemed but little chance, for Rheims and its great Cathedral, in which the Kings of France were crowned, were in the hands of the English. The king smiled to see so strange a champion,

but at last he was moved by Joan's earnest manner, and he ordered the learned men of his Court to out all about her, and about she said had come to her

The learned men soon rate, was full of courage and diers, who had lost so many

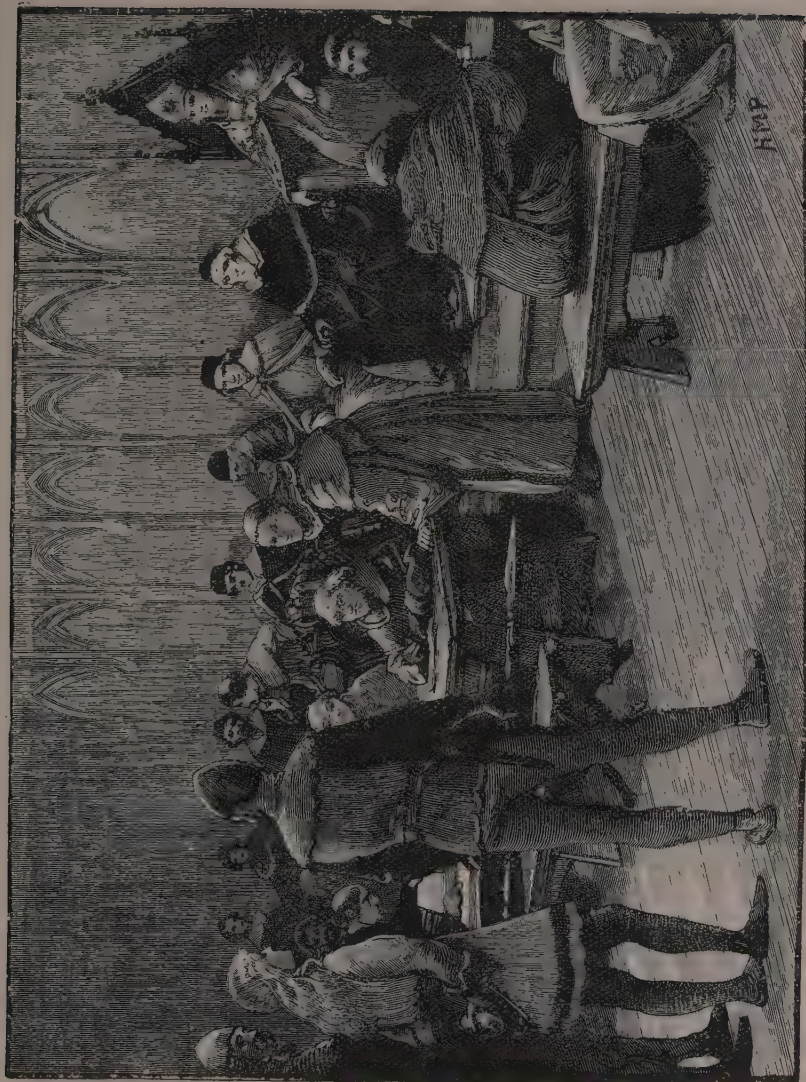
ask her questions and to find the wonderful message which from the angel.

found out that Joan, at any hope, and the French sol-battles, needed courage and



JOAN OF ARC.
(From the Statue in Paris.)

hope more than anything at that time. And so Joan was sent by order of the king to join the royal army, which was trying to raise the siege of the town of **Orleans**. She rode forth in full armour, mounted on a white horse. When she came among the soldiers, every man was moved by her courage and by her example, for she did not fear



TRIAL OF JOAN OF ARC.

during the thickest part of the fight. Soon men began to believe that she was indeed specially sent by God to free the kingdom of France from its enemies. The spirits of the French rose whenever they saw her, while the English, on their side, were alarmed and perplexed.

Under Joan's leadership, the French army soon raised the siege of Orleans, defeated the English, and set free the French garrison of the town, who had long given up all hope of being rescued. From that time forward the fortunes of the English in France began to fail. In battle after battle they were defeated. Rheims was retaken, and Joan's promise came true. Charles was crowned King of France in the Cathedral (1429). But though Joan had saved her country, she did not save herself. In the year 1430 she was taken prisoner in a skirmish outside the town of **Compiègne** by the soldiers of the Duke of Burgundy.

The English paid 10,000 francs for the prisoner. And now a terrible event took place. Joan was accused of witchcraft, and it was said that she had used wicked arts to bewitch her enemies. She was thrown into prison, and was urged to confess her crime. Once she gave way to her tormentors, and confessed; but her courage soon came back to her, and she withdrew what she had said. She was sentenced to be imprisoned for life; but this did not satisfy her enemies, and they soon found an excuse for putting her on her trial once more. She was brought before the French **Bishop of Beauvais**, and was condemned by him to be burnt alive.

This terrible punishment was carried out on the 30th of May, 1431, and poor Joan was burnt to death in the market-place at Rouen, in Normandy. The square in which she was burnt is still known as "*The Maiden's Square*" (Place de la Pucelle), and Joan still lives in the memory of Frenchmen as "*The Maid of Orleans*" (La Pucelle d'Orléans). But though Joan's death was sorrowful, her great work had really been done. The English power in France had been broken for ever, and the long war of a hundred years, which had begun in the reign of Edward III., died out at last in the reign of Henry VI.

All English men and women should admire Joan of Arc, although she was the enemy of England, and helped to defeat its armies; for she was a brave and good woman, who set an example of love of country, which any Englishman or Englishwoman may be proud to follow.

Nor must we forget that though Henry VI., and those who lived in his time, thought that it was a great disgrace to be defeated, and lamented the loss of France, it was really and truly a most fortunate thing for England that she was at last freed from the necessity of trying to keep down the great French people. It was neither right

nor possible that England should go on governing France. Just as Frenchmen could never really keep down Englishmen in their own country, so also it was impossible for Englishmen to keep down Frenchmen in France.

The Loss of France.

*"Montjoie St. Denis!"*¹

But the failure of the English in France did not end with the death of Joan. Quarrels arose between the English and their French Burgundian allies. The Duke of Bedford, the best of the English generals, died in 1435. Paris, which it is strange to think had been long held by English troops and governed by an English governor, was lost. The gates were thrown open to Charles VII., and the King of France once more ruled in his own capital.

Maine, the Duchy of Normandy, and Guienne alone remained under the banner of "St. George," but even these had now to be abandoned. Maine was given up by treaty in 1444, a condition of the surrender being that the young English king should receive the hand of **Margaret of Anjou** in marriage. The truce that followed this settlement was but a short one, and five years later (1449) war broke out again. Disaster once more overtook the English armies, and after an overwhelming defeat at Formigny (1450) Normandy itself, the duchy from which the Kings of England had themselves sprung, and which had so long been an undisputed possession of the English crown, fell into the hands of the enemy.

It may easily be supposed that the loss of Normandy and the weakness which had led to it proved an encouragement to the forces of disorder in England, and the loss which the war had inflicted upon the people made it easy for an active man to stir up revolt in England itself. In 1450, the same year as the battle which decided the fate of Normandy, **Jack Cade**, a soldier of fortune, who had fought in the French wars, following the example of Wat Tyler in the days of Richard II., placed himself at the head of a force composed of discontented men, and marched with arms, followed by thousands from Kent and Sussex, against the City of London. Several of the king's officers were killed, and for a time it seemed as if the rebels would command the city. They had

¹ The battle-cry of the Kings of France.

no common cause except that of the common suffering, and as their leader promised them the redress of all their grievances and hinted that they might also become masters of their neighbours' property, they were naturally eager to support so promising a cause.

But even the weak government of Henry VI. was strong enough to put down the rebellion of Jack Cade. Cade himself was taken and executed (1450) and his followers dispersed, but the fact that so formidable a movement came so near success shows how disturbed the country was, and how easy it would be for better known men than Jack Cade to light the fire of civil war.

Though a gleam of good fortune seemed to shine on King Henry when he succeeded in putting down Cade's rebellion, the dark cloud soon closed in again. In the year 1453 was lost the last of the great possessions of England across the Channel. After much fierce fighting, Bordeaux was taken, and the Province of Guienne fell into the hands of the French.

Thus it came about that within the short space of thirty-one years the power of England in France had melted away, and of all the great possessions in that country over which Henry V. had ruled there remained to England only **Calais** and a few small towns in the neighbourhood. The **Channel Islands**, part of the Duchy of Normandy, from which William the Conqueror came, fortunately retained their connection with England, and they remain to this day among the brightest ornaments of that crown with which their ruler, the Norman William, endowed the sovereigns of England, and which now adorns the brow of our British monarchs, who have no more loyal subjects than those who live in the Channel Islands.



CHAPTER XXXI.

YORK AND LANCASTER.

1445—1455.

The Rival Houses.

"In a word, he¹ would have adorned a cloister, though he disgraced a crown; and was rather respectable for those vices he wanted than for those virtues he possessed. He founded the colleges of Eton and Windsor, and King's College in Cambridge for those scholars who had begun their studies at Eton."—Smollett.

THE misfortunes which happened in France were not the only ones which befell our country in the reign of Henry VI. Unhappily, no sooner had war with a foreign enemy come to an end, than there began a "civil" war at home, in which Englishmen fought on both sides.

In order to understand this war, we must be quite clear about one or two things which helped to bring it about. King Henry VI.⁽⁴¹⁾ was the son of Henry V.⁽⁴⁾ and of his wife **Catherine**.⁽³⁷⁾ Henry, as we shall remember, was descended from **John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster**, the fourth son of **Edward III.**⁽¹⁾ He was therefore spoken of as belonging to **The House of Lancaster**. His mother, **Catherine**, who became a widow on the death of Henry V., wished to remain at Court and take care of the little king her son. But the king's uncles, the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, took so much power into their hands, that the queen found that she could very seldom get her own way, and could do very little. She therefore left the Court, and married a Welsh gentleman named **Owen Tudor**.⁽³⁸⁾

We must not forget the name of this Welsh gentleman; for though history tells us little about him, and though he never became very famous, the name of "Tudor" did become very famous in the history of England, and some of the greatest Sovereigns that England ever had were descended from this **Owen Tudor**.

When his mother, Catherine, went away, Henry was left in the power of his uncles. He was a dreamy, weak-minded boy, easily guided by others. His uncles thought that it would be a good thing to

¹ Henry VI.

find him a clever and strong-minded wife, and they therefore arranged that he should marry **Margaret of Anjou**; Margaret, indeed, turned out to be as strong-minded and ambitious as anyone could wish.

Now we understand about three of the people who come into this story. There is **Catherine**, *the mother of Henry VI.*, who first married Henry V., and then married Owen Tudor. Then there is **Henry VI.** himself, *a king of the House of Lancaster*. And lastly we have *Henry's wife*, **Margaret of Anjou**.

But there is another person about whom we must say something, namely, **Richard, Duke of York**⁽⁴⁰⁾. Richard, Duke of York, was, like Henry, himself *a Plantagenet*, and descended from both **Lionel, Duke of Clarence**,⁽²³⁾ the second son of **Edward III.**,⁽²¹⁾ and from **Edmund Langley, Duke of York**,⁽²⁸⁾ fifth son of Edward III. He was spoken of as belonging to the **House of York**. All these relationships may seem rather puzzling, but they will become clearer if we look at the table on page 266. We ought to know something about them if we want to understand the story of these times.

It will be seen, therefore, that among the great families who claimed descent from Edward III. there were two parties, one represented by King Henry, the head of the House of Lancaster, the other by Richard, Duke of York, head of the House of York. Both sides, therefore, had a claim to the crown, and if anything the claim of Richard, Duke of York, was the better of the two; but at that time, as at so many other times in the world's history, "might" seemed at least as powerful as "right," and the supporters of Richard were so many and so strong that, as we shall see, they were able to make good their title by force quite apart from the question of right.

How that war came about it is now easy to see. The country was indeed full of the materials which, if once a light be set to them, are sure to kindle into the fierce flames of civil war. In the first place, there was the king, a young man of feeble character, whose weak mind occasionally gave way altogether. His wife, Margaret of Anjou, possessed all the courage, the ambition, and the energy which her husband lacked. The early years of the king's reign had been years of foreign war, and in that war the country had suffered a great and, as many thought, a disgraceful defeat. The soldiers who had so long fought in France had returned in thousands to England, where they became a burden to the peaceful inhabitants from their turbulence; unfit for peaceful occupations, they were ready to take the first opportunity of serving under any leader who would promise them fighting and plunder.

Around the king there stood a number of great nobles, ambitious men anxious to make use of the king's name to further their own interests. Of these great noblemen the chief were the families of the Beauforts, the Tudors, the Percies of Northumberland, the Nevilles of Westmoreland, the Staffords of Buckingham. Meanwhile, as we have seen, there was another party opposed to the king and his friends, a party composed, like that which surrounded Henry, of great and ambitious nobles, each with his retinue of armed men. Such were the Earls of Salisbury and Warwick, of the family of Neville, and John Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk. It was to Richard, Duke of York, that members of this party looked as their head. It was not long before the rivalry between the two great factions passed from mere quarrelling into open war; and it is of this war that something must be said in this chapter. It is not easy, and it is not necessary, to follow carefully all the ups and downs, and the various changes of fortune, which marked the Wars of the Roses, but a word must be said about the character of the war itself.

The Wars of the Roses, which began in 1455 and lasted for thirty years, were in some ways very unlike other wars from which our country has suffered. It was not the people of England who were fighting against a foreign enemy, nor was it even the people of England divided into two parties engaged in civil war. It was the White Rose against the Red Rose, the House of York against the House of Lancaster, the friends of the House of York against the friends of the House of Lancaster.

The chief men on either side fought for power and riches. They fought because they hated each other, they fought because they loved fighting. They always found plenty of friends who loved power, riches, and fighting, ready to join them.

But, strange as it may seem, these terrible wars, which lasted so long, and in which so many fierce battles were fought, did not do much harm to the common people of England. Great battles were fought in different places, and many of the great lords and their followers were killed on both sides. But even quite close to places where the battles were fought, work went on, and people lived quietly, peaceably, without caring much what happened in the battle, or which side won.

There is a famous collection of letters which were written by members of the family of **Paston** to one another at this time. They have been put together in a book, and we can read them now. It is strange to notice how little those who were not actually concerned in the fighting seemed to think about the war that was going on. In many of the letters, nothing is said about the Wars of the Roses, or

about the House of Lancaster or the House of York; and when we read them, we might think that there had been perfect peace in the country at the time when they were written.

White Rose and Red Rose.

*SOMERSET: "Let him that is no coward, nor no flatterer
Pluck a red rose from off this thorn with me.*

*WARWICK: I love no colours, and without all colour
Of base insinuating flattery
I pluck this white rose with Plantagenet.*

*SUFFOLK: I pluck this red rose with young Somerset
And say withal I think he held the right."*

Shakespeare: "Henry VI.," Part I.

Every reader of English history is familiar with the name which has been given to the long struggle which began in the reign of Henry VI., and ended thirty years later at the battle of Bosworth Field (1485). We describe it as the "Wars of the Roses." The phrase has become so much a part of our history that it is worth while to say a few words as to what it means, and how it came to be used.



A ROSE FROM THE DECORATIONS OF THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT

The two most important counties in England are **Yorkshire** and **Lancashire**. They are great rivals in many things, though they are happily not enemies. If we look at a soldier who belongs to one of the Yorkshire regiments, such as the King's Own Yorkshire Light Infantry (51st and 105th) we shall see that he bears on his collar a **Rose**. If we look at a soldier of one of the Lancashire regiments, such for instance as the Royal North Lancashire (47th and 81st) we shall see that he, too, has on his collar a **Rose**.

The rose is one of the crests or signs of **Yorkshire**, and it is also one of the crests or signs of **Lancashire**, but there is a difference between the two. If we see the rose painted up in Yorkshire, as we may do in many places, we shall see that it is a **White Rose**; but if we saw it painted up in Lancashire, it would be a **Red Rose**.

If we go into the Houses of Parliament in Westminster, we can see in some of the coloured glass windows the White Rose of York and the Red Rose of Lancaster joined together. How was it that these two roses ever came to be divided? How was it that they ever came together again? That is what we shall learn in the next few chapters.

On the Thames Embankment in London there is a great block



THE QUARREL IN THE TEMPLE GARDENS.

of buildings where lawyers live. There are gardens in front of the buildings which come nearly down to the river. The great block of buildings is called **The Temple**, and the gardens are the Temple Gardens.

On a summer's day, some four hundred years ago, **Richard, Duke of York** ⁽⁴⁰⁾ and **John Beaufort**, ⁽³⁹⁾ **Earl of Somerset**, who was of the House of Lancaster, were walking in the Temple Gardens with their friends. The story says that the two quarrelled, and that their friends took up the quarrel on either side. Then Beaufort plucked a Red Rose from a bush hard by, and said to his friends, "*Let those who are of my party wear my flower.*" Then the Duke of York plucked a White Rose for his badge. And so it came about that the Red Rose stood for the House of Lancaster, and the White Rose for the House of York, not only in this first quarrel, but in the terrible war which followed it.

CHAPTER XXXII.

EDWARD IV.

1455—1483.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF EDWARD IV.

Edward IV., son of Richard, Duke of York, and Cicely Neville, King of England, b. 1442, became King 1461, d. 1483, reigned 22 years.

Elizabeth Woodville, widow of Sir John Grey, wife of Edward IV., m. 1464.

Elizabeth, afterwards wife of King Henry VII.

Edward, afterwards Edward V.

Richard, Duke of York;

and four other daughters.

George, Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward IV., murdered 1478.

Richard, Duke of Gloucester, brother of Edward IV., afterwards King of England, b. 1450.

Lord Rivers and **Lord Grey**, members of the Queen's family.

Louis XI., King of France, 1461—1483.

William Caxton, who introduced the art of printing into England.

Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV., who befriended William Caxton.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF EDWARD IV.

(After the Death of Henry VI.)

1475. Edward claims the crown of France and lands with an army at Calais.
Edward collects money for the French war in the form of "Benevolences," or taxes levied from the people without the consent of Parliament.

1475. Louis XI. of France persuades Edward to give up his claims and to leave France.

1478. Edward accuses his brother, the Duke of Clarence, of treason, and causes him to be murdered in the Tower.

1483. Death of Edward.

The Chances of War—Wakefield—St. Albans—Towton— Barnet—Tewkesbury.

What is most astonishing in the life of this prince¹ is his good fortune, which seemed to be prodigious. - Rapin.

It was in 1455 that fighting first began. A battle was fought (May 23rd) at **St. Albans**, in which the Yorkist party were the victors. King Henry himself was taken prisoner by Richard, Duke of York, and the Duke of Somerset, the king's chief minister, was killed. But though the king was a prisoner, his wife was free, and determined at any cost to destroy her enemies. She succeeded in stirring up the king's friends, and this time the fortunes of war turned against the Yorkists, who were routed at **Ludford**, near Ludlow, in 1459. It was one of the most unfortunate features in this unhappy war that as each party gained the upper hand it sought by cruelty and oppression to destroy its opponents, and, as might have been

¹ Edward IV.

expected, the attempt only drove the defeated party into fiercer resistance. Men who feel that they have nothing to lose are always dangerous enemies; and thus on the present occasion the defeated Yorkists, united by the violence of the king's party, again appeared in arms. On the 10th of July, 1460, the Earl of Warwick defeated the Lancastrians at **Northampton**. A second time the king was taken prisoner, and a second time the queen escaped to carry on the war. The Duke of York seemed now to have within his reach the prize for which he longed—namely, the crown of England, for King Henry was in his power; but as yet he did not dare to enforce his claim. He demanded, however, that he should succeed King Henry, thus depriving the Prince of Wales, Henry's eldest son, of his rights.

But Queen Margaret, ever courageous and determined, had succeeded once more in rallying the Lancastrian forces. At the battle of **Wakefield** (December 31st, 1460), the Yorkists suffered a terrible defeat. Richard, Duke of York, was slain on the field. A second battle at **St. Albans** (February 17th, 1461) gave another victory to the Lancastrians and restored the king to his friends. London, which throughout stood by the Yorkists, was only saved by the valour of Edward, the young son of Richard of York, who arrived with his troops in time to protect the City.

And now, for the first time we have the strange spectacle of two kings of England demanding the allegiance of the people, for Edward with the consent of his followers, boldly claimed the crown, and proclaimed himself King of England as Edward IV. He soon proved himself worthy of his position. He advanced against the Lancastrians, and on the 29th of March, 1461, engaged them at **Towton**, near Tadcaster. The battle, in which 60,000 men were slain, was one of the fiercest in all the war, and once more fortune deserted the cause of Henry. His army was defeated and almost destroyed, while many of the most powerful Lancastrian nobles were slain on the field. Henry fled to Scotland, and for a time Edward reigned as undisputed King of England. His strength lay partly in his own character as a skilful and courageous commander in battle, but it was probably from the support which he received from the great Earl of Warwick, the most powerful of the Yorkist nobles, that he owed his success at this time. So great was the power of Warwick, so important was his aid to the party which he supported, that he came to be called "Warwick, the King-Maker," and indeed it seemed as if the gift of the crown of England lay in his strong hands.

In the short interval of peace which now followed, an event of some importance took place. This was the marriage of Edward to **Elizabeth**

Woodville, the widow of Sir John Grey, one of the Lancastrian party. The marriage was made contrary to the advice of Warwick, who desired to see the king married to a French princess, and who disliked the Woodvilles and feared their influence over the king. From that time forward the "King-Maker" set himself to injure Edward and to help the fallen Henry. He secretly entered into an agreement with the Lancastrians. Edward himself was entrapped by a party of Lancastrians and imprisoned, and for a short time Warwick was sufficiently powerful to wreak his vengeance upon the hated family of Woodville, and to secure the execution of Earl Rivers, the head of the Woodville family (1469).

It seemed, however, fated that in this strange civil war the victor, whoever he was, must expect to see himself within a very short time in the position of the vanquished. Edward escaped from his prison and took the field. Warwick now openly turned traitor and joined Henry and Queen Margaret, who in 1470 made one last attempt to recover the crown. But again Edward proved himself an unrivalled general in the field. The two armies met at **Barnet**, a few miles north of London. The Yorkists were victorious, a fog covered the field of battle, and Warwick, "the King-Maker" and traitor, losing his way, arrived only in time to find the battle lost. Falling into the hands of the victorious Yorkists, he was slain, together with his brother and his principal followers (14th April, 1471). One more attempt to retrieve their fallen fortunes was made by the Lancastrians, and Margaret, courageous to the last, led her army against Edward. At **Tewkesbury**, however, a battle took place (4th May, 1471), and Edward was again completely victorious. Margaret herself was taken prisoner, and her son Edward was killed.

A few days later the feeble King Henry, once more in the hands of his enemies was murdered in his prison, it is said by the hand, or at any rate by the order, of Richard, Duke of Gloucester, brother of the king. And thus, at last, Edward found himself in undisputed possession of the crown, and for a time at least the House of York was supreme.

Edward IV. now reigned as King of England, with no one to dispute his right. The war had been long and disastrous. Many men had lost their lives on both sides, but the greatest loss had been among the nobles. When the House of Lords was called together after the Wars of the Roses, there were less than forty lords left to obey the call.

Little space need be devoted to the reign of Edward IV. after the battle of Tewkesbury. That battle was fought, as we have read, in the year 1471, and for twelve years King Edward reigned as undisputed

king, enjoying the ease which his previous activity in the field had won for him. It cannot be said that he was a good king, but he was undoubtedly a popular one and deserved to be so, for he allowed his subjects to enjoy for the first time for many years the blessings of peace. His subjects were not slow to take advantage of the opportunity given to them, and it is from this period that we must date the beginning of the growth of wealth in England which became so marked a hundred years later.

Of the great nobles with their turbulent following many had been slain, others had been ruined or banished from the country. Meanwhile, a class of wealthy merchants, who cared nothing for the disputes of the nobles, had been growing up. Trade with foreign countries had increased, and the war which had ruined the nobility had left the country but little the worse. Nor did Edward run the risk of losing his popularity by making excessive demands upon Parliament. He preferred rather to compel a small number of rich men to pay him money under the form of forced loans, or "benevolences," than to trouble Parliament for "supplies." This plan found favour with the many who were not asked to contribute, and they did not care to ask whether it were legal or not. They were content that others should be called upon to pay as long as they themselves went free. It has been said with truth that "the price of liberty is eternal vigilance," and the proverb receives its illustration in this case, for Parliament having once given up or ceased to exercise its right to vote money, found it difficult to regain that right when it desired to do so. We shall learn in a later chapter how our English Sovereigns, having learnt from King Edward how to govern without a Parliament, improved the lesson and reduced Parliament for many years to a condition in which it was almost powerless either for good or evil.

Unluckily, the bitter enmities which had been raised during the Wars of the Roses had not as yet been exhausted. Hatred and distrust still divided parties, and even families, and in the year 1478 Edward, convinced that his own brother, George, Duke of Clarence, was plotting against him, threw him into prison, and caused him to be put to death. His younger brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, he trusted, but his trust was terribly misplaced.

On the 9th of April, 1483, Edward died, leaving two sons, Edward aged twelve, and Richard aged nine, and five daughters, of whom we must remember the eldest, Elizabeth by name, who at the time of her father's death was eighteen years of age.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

THE INVENTION OF PRINTING.

William Caxton and the Compositor's Case.

"There are no tools more ingeniously wrought, or more potent than those which belong to the art of the printer."—*The Common School Journal*. 1843.

BEFORE passing to the history of the next reign, something must be said of certain events which took place in our history during the reign of Edward IV., which, though they are not part of the political history of the time, are of very great importance, and had a great influence upon the life of our nation. The fifteenth century will always be memorable as that in which the art of printing was introduced into England.

Before the time of Edward IV.—that is to say, before the year 1470—printing was unknown in England. The art of Printing had been known and practised for some time abroad, but there had been no printing press set up in England.

The name of the first man who brought the printing press into England ought to be remembered, for few things have made more difference to our country than the invention of printing. The name of the man of whom I speak was **William Caxton**. When he was quite a young man, he came up to London from Kent, and got employment in the shop of a man who dealt in wool and woollen goods. At that time, most of the wool which was used in England was bought and sold at the great markets which were held at the town of **Bruges**, in Belgium. He stayed in Bruges for many years working at his trade. He got on very well, and became rich and much respected. It was not till he was fifty years old that Caxton made a great change in his business, a change which ended in making his name very famous in English history.

The town of Bruges was under the government of the **Duke of Burgundy**, and the Duke of Burgundy had married **Margaret**, the sister of King Edward IV. of England.

Now it happened that Caxton had been amusing himself by translating into English a French poem called "**The History of Troy.**" Margaret was very friendly to Caxton, who was her countryman, and when she heard that he was translating the "**Siege of Troy,**" she sent for him and asked him to read it to her. When he had finished the whole work, the princess asked him to give her a copy of it to send to her friends in England. But to copy out a poem which fills a whole book is a long and tiresome task, and Caxton soon became very tired of the work.

He got so tired of it that at last he decided to go to some Dutch printers who were living in Bruges, and who were among the first persons who printed books in Europe. From these printers he learnt how to print himself, and before very long was able to print a copy of his poem for the princess.

Margaret sent the book over to her brother, and those who saw it in England were astonished and delighted with the work. At last Caxton made up his mind to leave Bruges and to come over to England. He brought with him his printing press, and set it up near Westminster Abbey in London. There he soon set to work to print books, and though his press was a very small one, and worked much more slowly than those which are used now, he was able during his life to print no less than **Ninety-nine** books.

It was in the year 1477 that Caxton first set up his printing press in England, and from that time the number of printing presses has increased very quickly, and now millions of books are printed each year. We must not forget that it was to William Caxton that the credit is due of having been the first to bring the art of printing into England.

An instructive and rather amusing historical lesson may be learnt from an article which is in daily use in every printing office at the present day.



CAXTON PRESENTING HIS BOOK TO EDWARD IV.
(From the MS. in the Library of Lambeth Palace).

The man who sets up or "composes" the different types or letters for a book such as that which we are now reading, is called a "*compositor*." He has before him, when he is "*composing*," two shallow trays made of wood, divided into a number of little boxes or compartments. The metal types which he uses are kept in these little boxes: all the A's in one, the B's in another, the C's in another, and so on. He takes them out and arranges them in the proper order to spell the words which have to be printed.

The trays which hold the type are called "*cases*." All the capital letters, A, B, C, D, and so on, are in the top case, or, as printers call it, "the upper case." The little boxes in which the capital letters are

Greendeth the book named the dictes oz sayengis
of the philosophhres enprynted . By me William
Caxton at Westmestre the yere of our lord + m-
CCCC + Lxxviii + Whiche book is late translat

LINES FROM A BOOK PRINTED BY CAXTON.

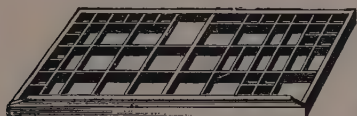
kept, are arranged in the order of the alphabet, A, B, C, D, and so on, until we come to the letter J. There is no place here for the letter J. Then we go on in the proper order, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, and so on, until we come to the letter U. The letter U, like the letter J, is out of its place. We must go on to the end of the alphabet, and after we have finished all the other boxes, down to X, Y, and Z, Æ and Œ, we shall find the two compartments for J and U.

It seems at first as if the order in which a compositor's case is arranged could have very little to do with the history of King Edward IV.; but we shall see that the arrangement of the letters in the compositor's case does after all tell us a little story of its own, and does really take us back a great many years in our history.

The first compositor's case that was ever used in England was made in the reign of Edward IV., and it was made to hold all the letters which people used at that time. But in the time of Edward IV. the letters J and U were never used in writing. "I" was used instead of J, and V did duty for U. If King Edward, when writing a letter to his brother Richard of York,⁽⁴³⁾ had wanted to put a date June 8th, he would probably have written it with the letters IVNE viiith.

And so it was natural enough that when the first compositor's case was made, no place should be found for J and U. Many years afterwards, the two letters came to be used in English printing. The compositors had got so used to the old order with the J and the U left out that they never liked to alter it, so they decided to stick the two letters in at the end, and the compositor's alphabet now ends "W, X, Y, Z, Æ, Œ, U, J."

In Chapter XXVI. we read an account of the battle of Crécy, and we learnt how for the first time gunpowder was used on the field of battle. The use of gunpowder made a very great change in the world, for it made the **Weak** equal to the **Strong**, and it enabled a poor man to



"LOWER CASE" OR SMALL LETTERS.



"UPPER CASE" OR CAPITALS.

have as good arms and to defend himself as well as a rich man. We may truly say of gunpowder that it made all men more equal, by making the strong and the proud less powerful than before.

But if gunpowder made a great change in the world, the invention of **Printing** made a still greater change. There is something else besides strength and courage which gives power, and that is **Knowledge**. From the day when printing was invented, it became possible for thousands and thousands of people, who had never before had a chance of learning, to buy and read books and to acquire the knowledge which the books contained.

In our own time there are none so poor that they cannot, if they choose, learn from books. Every child is taught how to read in the schools; books cost only a few pence, and for those who are not able, or who do not care, to spend even a few pence, there are Public Libraries in almost all towns, and in many villages, in which people can read the best books without any payment. The invention of printing made all people more equal than they were before, because it raised up those who were poor and ignorant by giving them the chance of reading and learning things which, before there were printed books, only the rich could read and learn.

The Fall of Constantinople.

"The capture of Constantinople by the Turks, and the flight of its Greek scholars to the shores of Italy, opened anew the science and literature of the older world, at the very hour when the intellectual energy of the Middle Ages had sunk into exhaustion."—J. R. Green.

There is one thing which ought not to be forgotten when we read the history of the first printing press in England. Caxton's printing press was set up in the year 1470 in Westminster. In the year 1453, or seventeen years earlier, the great city of **Constantinople** had been besieged and taken by the **Turks**. The Christians who lived in it had been put to death or turned out, and all the great libraries and schools in Constantinople had been broken up or destroyed.

At first it seemed as if the taking of Constantinople, far away in Turkey, had little to do with the setting-up of a printing press in Westminster, but we shall see that really the two things had a great deal to do with each other.

For many hundreds of years, learned men from all parts of Europe had gone to live at Constantinople to study Greek and Latin, and to read the Greek and Latin books which were kept at the libraries of Constantinople. But when Constantinople was taken by the Turks, all these Latin and Greek scholars were driven out of the city. They were glad to escape with their lives, and with such books as they could carry away with them. They wandered all over Europe, and, being learned men, many of them found a welcome in the cities and towns in which they stopped. In these cities and towns they began to teach the people how to read the Latin and Greek books which they had brought with them, and also taught them to read the Latin and Greek books which were kept in many of the towns of Europe, but which few people at that time were able to read.

But if there had been no way of adding to the number of books except by writing them out with a pen from beginning to end, it is plain that very few people would have been able to read them or to take advantage of the New Learning which had come from Constantinople. Luckily, it was just at this time that the printing press was invented, and so it came about that as fast as people were taught to read the Greek and Latin books we have spoken about, there were found

printers to make copies of them, and to spread them all over Europe. In this way, many books which had been forgotten for more than a thousand years, became known again, and all the great thoughts of famous men who lived in Greece and in Rome in ages past were made known once more to people in every country. Thus we see that at the time when the printing presses first made it possible to print a great number of books, there happened to be a great number of books which it was necessary to print.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

EDWARD V. AND RICHARD III.

1483-1485.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGNS OF EDWARD V. AND RICHARD III.

Edward V., King of England, the right heir to the crown, eldest son of Edward IV., b. 1470, murdered in the Tower 1483.

Richard, second son of Edward IV. and brother of King Edward V., murdered in the Tower 1483.

Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV., sister of the young princes, became wife of Henry of Richmond, afterwards King Henry VII.

Richard III., King of England, son of Richard, Duke of York, and brother to Edward IV., b. 1450, became king 1483, killed at Bosworth 1485, reigned two years.

Anne Neville, daughter of the Earl of Warwick, and widow of Edward, Prince of Wales (son of Henry VI.), wife of Richard III., m. 1472.

Elizabeth, widow of Edward IV. and mother of the young princes and of Elizabeth, d. 1492.

Henry of Richmond, son of Edmund Tudor and Margaret Beaufort, afterwards King of England.

Philip de Comines, the great French historian, who wrote the history of these times, b. 1445, d. 1509.

Christopher Columbus, who discovered America, b. 1435.

Martin Luther, the great German Reformer, b. 1483.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGNS OF EDWARD V. AND RICHARD III.

1483. April 30, Richard seizes the young King Edward, and declares himself king.

July 6, Richard crowned.

August, the young princes murdered in the Tower.

1483. October 18, insurrection of the Lancastrians under Buckingham. Buckingham captured and executed.

1485. August, Henry of Richmond lands at Milford.

August 22, Battle of Bosworth. Death of Richard. Henry crowned king.

The Last of the Plantagenets.

"We must live together like brothers, fight together like lions, and fear not to die together like men. And if you consider and wisely ponder all things in your mind, you shall perceive that we have manifest causes and apparent tokens of triumph and victory. . . . Wherefore, advance forth your standards, and everyone give but one sure stroke, and surely the journey is ours. And as for me, I assure you this day I will triumph by victory, or suffer death for immortal fame."—Address of Richard III. to his army before the battle of Bosworth.

THE names of two kings have been placed at the head of this chapter, and, indeed, the events which occurred during the reign of the poor boy whose name figures in our history as Edward V. require but little record. It will be remembered that on his death Edward IV. left two sons, Edward and Richard, both of them children. Edward was undoubtedly the true heir to the crown if the throne were to go to the Yorkists; but here again we have proof that sometimes "might" takes the place of "right," and that violence and cruelty triumph, if only for a short time. It has been mentioned that Edward IV. trusted his younger brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester, and with little reason for his confidence. From the day of his brother's death Richard determined that, whatever obstacles might stand in the way, the crown of England should be his. It is plain that the chief obstacle lay in the life of his two nephews; but these young children were defenceless, and Richard made up his mind to sweep them from his path. He ordered the little King Edward and his brother to be shut up close prisoners in the Tower of London. There they were smothered as they lay in their beds, and the place where their bodies were buried under one of the stone staircases is still pointed out to those who visit the Tower. That Richard was the author of the murder no one really doubted, but the Duke of Gloucester was too powerful a man to meddle with, and Richard was able to gratify his long-cherished ambition to claim, with the assent of Parliament, the crown of England.

For a short time, and a short time only, he compelled the country to acknowledge his lawless rule; and in the first year of his reign he even succeeded in putting down a rebellion led by the Duke of Buckingham, whom he defeated, took prisoner, and ordered to be executed. But his punishment was not far off, and once more the House of Lancaster was to triumph over the House of York.

The First of the Tudors.

Let us, therefore, fight like invincible giants, and set on our enemies like untimorous tigers, and banish all fear like raging lions. And now advance forward, true men against traitors, pitiful persons against murderers, true inheritors against usurpers, the scourges of God against tyrants. Display my banner with a good courage; march forth like strong and robustious champions, and begin the battle like hardy conquerors. . . . In the Name of God and St. George, let every man courageously advance forth his standard."—*Proclamation of Henry, Earl of Richmond, to his army before the battle of Bosworth.*

In order to understand who it was that drove Richard III. from his throne, we must go back to what we read in Chapter XXXI. It will be remembered that when Henry V. died, his widow, **Catherine**,⁽³⁷⁾ lived for a time at the Court of her little son, Henry VI., but that at last she got tired of the continual interference of the king's uncles, the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester. She went away from the Court, and married a Welsh gentleman named **Owen Tudor**.⁽³⁸⁾ We said that this Welsh gentleman ought to be remembered because the name of Tudor would come in again in English history; and now we shall see how it was that the name of Tudor became the name of the kings and queens of England.

Catherine and Owen Tudor had a son, who was called **Edmund, Earl of Richmond**,⁽⁴²⁾ and **Edmund, Earl of Richmond**, married **Margaret Beaufort**,⁽⁴³⁾ daughter of the Duke of Somerset,⁽³⁹⁾ who, we must remember, was a *Lancastrian*. Edmund and Margaret had a son called **Henry**⁽⁴⁸⁾—"Harry of Richmond," as he is called in Shakespeare—and it is with this son **Henry**, or "**Harry of Richmond**," we have now got to do. It is clear, therefore, that Harry of Richmond was altogether one of the *Red Rose* party, and to him all the Lancastrians now looked as their champion against Richard III.⁽⁴⁶⁾ Henry had not only many friends among the Lancastrians, but he had also friends among the Yorkists; for Richard, by his cruelty, had made himself hated.

And so, at last, the Lancastrians made up their minds once more to try the fortune of war. Henry of Richmond was in France. On the 1st of August, 1485, he sailed from Harfleur in that country, and after a voyage of seven days arrived at Milford Haven, in Wales. He brought with him a small army of 3,000 men. Many Welshmen joined him; they remembered that he was himself the grandson of a Welshman—Owen Tudor.

Henry now marched eastward into England, and was soon joined

by several thousand men. As soon as the news reached King Richard, he put himself at the head of his troops and marched to meet his rival. On the 21st of August the king reached **Bosworth**, twelve miles from Leicester. He had with him 30,000 men, but many of these were secret enemies of his cause, and he dared not trust them. Henry had by this time reached **Tamworth**. His army, though much smaller than that of the king, was composed of men who had all willingly joined him, and who were ready to die for his cause.

On the 22nd of August was fought the famous battle of **Bosworth Field**. Both Richard and Henry fought valiantly in the hottest of the battle. Scarcely had the fight begun when **Lord Stanley**, who, with 5,000 men, had hitherto sided with King Richard, suddenly came over with all his followers to Henry of Richmond. The royal troops were disheartened, but the misfortune only encouraged Richard himself to fight more fiercely than before.

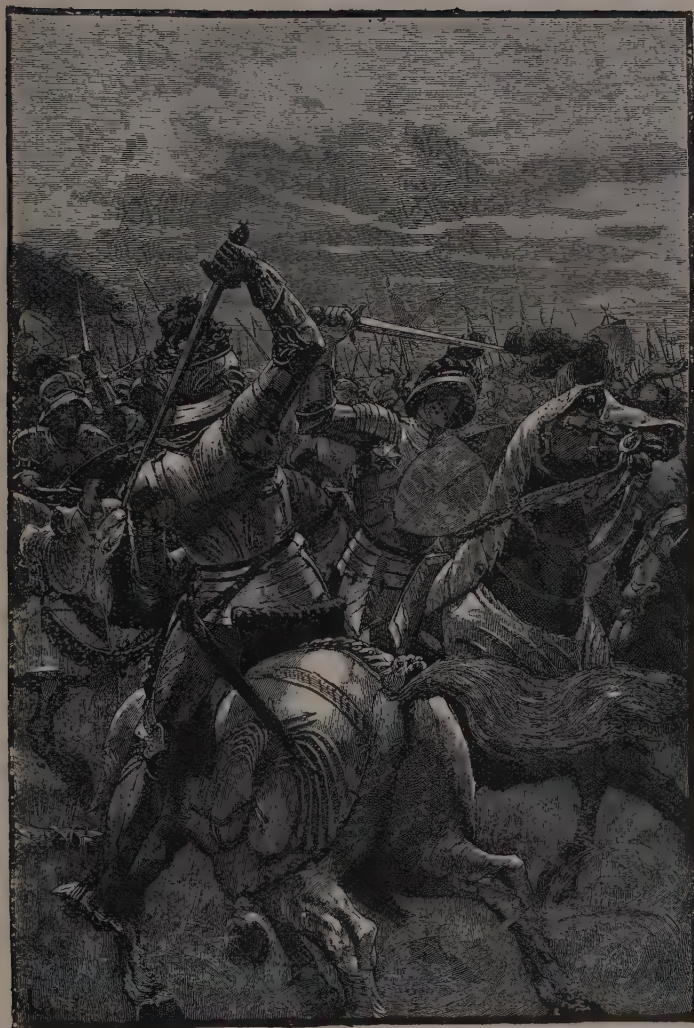


THE CROWN IN THE HAWTHORN
BUSH: A TUDOR EMBLEM.

Three times he charged with his horsemen against the centre of the enemy. His hope was to kill Henry of Richmond; and he dashed forward crying, "*Treason! treason! treason!*" He killed, with his own hand, Sir William Brandon, who bore Henry's standard. He cut down Sir John Cheyner, who was close to Henry, and he dealt a desperate blow at his rival. But here his short success ended. Sir William Stanley rode up with his followers, and Richard, fighting fiercely, was borne to the ground and slain.

The body of the king was stripped of his rich armour. Richard had ridden into the battle with a golden crown upon his helmet. When he fell, the crown rolled away and could not be found. At last it was discovered lying under a hawthorn bush. Sir William Stanley brought the golden circlet to Henry of Richmond, and there, on the field of battle, he placed it on the conqueror's head, hailing him no longer as Henry of Richmond, but as **Henry VII., King of England**. So fell Richard of Gloucester, the last of the Plantagenet Kings.

Many hard things have been said of Richard III., and many of them are no doubt well deserved; but we must not forget that most of the accounts which we have of his life were written by his enemies, who told all that was bad and little that was good about him. It is of Richard,



RICHARD III. AT THE BATTLE OF BOSWORTH

Duke of Gloucester, that Shakespeare's great play "Richard III." is written. In that play we have Richard described as a man of great cruelty, and a deformed hunchback. Whether Richard were in fact as black as he was painted we cannot now with certainty determine, but that he gained the throne by violence and cruelty is undoubted, and there were few in England who were grieved when he in turn lost by violence that which he had so shamefully won.

The Union of the Roses.

*"We will unite the white rose with the red :—
Smile, Heaven, upon this fair conjunction,
That long hath frown'd upon their enmity !
What traitor hears me, and says not, Amen ?"*

Shakespeare : "Richard III."

With **Henry VII.** we begin the story of the **Tudors**, and this must be told in another chapter. But though with Richard there ended the



A YORK AND LANCASTER ROSE, RED AND WHITE ON THE SAME STALK.

line of the **Plantagenet Kings**, and though the battle of Bosworth crushed the power of the **House of York**, it is pleasant to think that after all these long wars and this fierce fighting, the bitter quarrel between Red Rose and White Rose was at last made up by a happy marriage.

We shall remember that when Edward IV. died, he left several children, including the two little princes, **Edward**⁽⁵⁰⁾ and **Richard**,⁽⁵¹⁾ who were smothered in the Tower. The eldest girl was **Elizabeth**.⁽⁴⁹⁾ The year after the battle of Bosworth Field, Henry of Richmond, now **King Henry VII.**,⁽⁴⁸⁾

married **Elizabeth**, daughter of Edward IV., a princess of the House of York.

There is a rose-tree which we sometimes see in old-fashioned gardens which is called the "*York and Lancaster rose*," for the roses which it bears have their petals streaked with red and white, or some flowers red and others white. This flower might well have become the emblem of the Kings of England after the marriage of Henry VII. For now, indeed, the Red Rose and the White Rose were united, and the great Houses of Lancaster and York were friends at last.



WILLIAM I.
The Conqueror.
[1]

Robert. [21]
WILLIAM II. HENRY I. [4]
[3] (Rufus).
The Emperor Henry V. = Matilda = Geoffrey of Anjou.
[7] [9]
STEPHEN [10]
Adela = Stephen of Blois.
[51] [6]
HENRY II. [11]

Henry. [12]
RICHARD I. [13]
Geoffrey = Constance [14]
[of Brittany].
HENRY III. [15]
Arthur. [16]
EDWARD I. [18]
[19]
EDWARD II. [20]
EDWARD III. [21]

Edward. [22]
William.
Lionel, Duke
of Clarence.
[23]
RICHARD II. [29]
Philip = Edmund
[30] Mortimer. [31]
[32]
HENRY IV. [33]
John Beaufort,
Earl of Somerset.
[34]
HENRY V. [35]
Catherine = Owen
of France. [36]
Tudor. [37]
HENRY VI. [38]
Edward Tudor = Margaret Beaufort.
[39]
[40]
Anne Mortimer. [35a]
[35v]
= Richard, Earl of Cambridge.
[34]
Edward, Prince
of Wales.
[47]
HENRY VII. [48]
Elizabeth.
[49]
HENRY VIII. [53]
EDWARD IV. [44]
George, Duke
of Clarence.
[45]
RICHARD III. [46]
Edward, Prince
of Wales.
[52]
EDWARD V. [50]
Richard,
Duke of York.
[51]
Edmund of Langley,
Duke of York.
[27]
Thomas,
Duke of Gloucester.
[28]
Richard, Earl of Cambridge.
[34]
Richard, Duke of York.
[40]

GENEALOGICAL TABLE.

The thick line shows the line of descent from William I. to Queen Victoria as far as Henry VII.

PART FOUR.

THE TUDORS.

1485—1603.

NOTE.

The portion of our history which is described in the Fourth Part of this book is peculiarly full of interest and variety. It is in every sense a brilliant and exciting period, in which men of action and men of thought crowd upon the scene, and in which the genius of the English race may be said to have found its highest expression. The Tudor Sovereigns themselves, with all their faults, were men and women of strong character, well fitted for the stirring times in which they lived.

In the short space of 118 years, during which they ruled over the country, the whole world, and England as part of the world, seemed to be changed. It is not often in the world's history that the ideas of the grandson are so widely different from those of the grandfather, that the latter would have altogether failed to understand the ideas and expressions of the former. And yet, if we remember what a change passed over the world in the closing years of the fourteenth and the beginning of the fifteenth centuries, we shall be able to understand that for once, at any rate, men could speak of something new with the certainty that the knowledge which they possessed had never been granted to those who came before them.

In England men became aware that there was a New World, they spoke of a New Learning, and they fought for a New form of Religion, and in the struggle between New and Old the full strength of the nation showed itself. It was a splendid time in our history, and it was peculiarly an "English" time, for we had not, as we have had in later days, the help of Irish genius and Irish courage, and Scotland was still a foreign and often a hostile kingdom. The story of the growth and expansion of England in these days is only less marvellous than that which is familiar to us in our own day under a greater queen than Elizabeth.

CHAPTER XXXV.

HENRY VII.

1485—1509.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF
HENRY VII.

Henry VII., King of England, son of Edmund Tudor and Margaret Beaufort, b. 1456, became king 1485, d. 1509.

Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV., wife of Henry VII., m. 1486, d. 1503.

Arthur, eldest son of Henry, m. Catharine of Aragon, d. 1532.

Margaret Tudor, eldest daughter of Henry and Elizabeth, m. James IV. of Scotland, d. 1541.

Henry, second son of Henry, afterwards King of England.

Mary Tudor, second daughter of Henry, m. Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, d. 1534.

Charles VIII., King of France, d. 1498.

Louis XII., King of France.

Ferdinand and Isabella, Sovereigns of Castile and Aragon, Ferdinand d. 1512.

Maximilian I., Emperor.

James IV., King of Scotland.

Innocent VIII., Pope, d. 1492.

Alexander VI., Pope, poisoned 1503.

Pius III., Pope, d. 1503.

Julius II., Pope.

Christopher Columbus, discoverer of the New World.

Martin Luther, b. 1483.

Thomas Wolsey, afterwards Cardinal Wolsey, b. 1471.

Empson and Dudley, Ministers of Henry VII.

Cardinal Morton, Henry's Chief Minister, d. 1505.

Great Painters:—

Leonardo da Vinci (Florentine), b. 1445.

Albert Dürer (German), b. 1471.

Michael Angelo (Florentine), b. 1474.

Titian (Venetian), 1477.

Raphael d'Urbino (Roman), b. 1483.

Correggio (Italian), b. 1494.

Hans Holbein (German), b. 1494.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF HENRY VII.

1485. Battle of Bosworth. Henry becomes king.

1486. Henry marries Elizabeth of York.

1487. Lambert Simnel's rebellion.

1496. Sebastian Cabot starts on his voyage of discovery.

1492-8. Perkin Warbeck's rebellion.

1499. Perkin Warbeck executed.

1502. Prince Arthur dies.

Henry VII.'s Chapel at Westminster built.

1503. Death of Queen Elizabeth (of York). Empson and Dudley in office.

1504. Parliament summoned.

1507. Wolsey first employed.

1509. Henry dies.

In this reign Columbus discovered the New World; Vasco da Gama sailed round the Cape of Good Hope; the province of Brittany became part of the kingdom of France; Granada was taken from the Moors by the Spaniards (1492), and the Moors or Mahomedans were driven out of Spain, 1499.

The Tudors.

*"A warlike prince ascends the regal state,
A prince long exercised by Fate,
Long may he keep, though he obtains it late."—Dryden.*

In the last chapter we read how the line of the *Plantagenet Kings* came to an end with the death of **King Richard III.** on Bosworth Field. We read how the crown of England was picked up from a

hawthorn bush and placed upon the head of **Henry of Richmond**, who was known from that day forward as **Henry VII., King of England**.

Richard III. ⁽⁴⁶⁾ ¹ was the last of the *Plantagenets*. **Henry VII.** ⁽⁴⁶⁾ was the first of the *Tudors*. The *Plantagenet* kings, as we know, were the descendants of **Geoffrey of Anjou**, ⁽⁹⁾ father of King **Henry II.**, who married Queen **Matilda** in the year 1127. The battle of **Bosworth** was fought in the year 1485; so we see that from the year 1154, when **Henry II.**, the first of the *Plantagenet* kings, came to the throne, to the year 1485, when **Richard III.**, the last of the *Plantagenet* kings, died at **Bosworth**, was a period of *three hundred and thirty-one years*. And now we leave the history of the *Plantagenet* kings and come to that of the **Tudor Kings**, beginning with **Henry VII.** What is meant by calling **Henry** a *Tudor King*, and what is meant by the *Tudor Period*? It is not difficult to understand what is meant, if we remember what we read in the earlier part of our history. It is not in the reign of **Henry VII.** that we first meet with the name of *Tudor*; but it is in the reign of **Henry VI.**, sixty-two years before.

Queen Catherine, ⁽³⁷⁾ the mother of **Henry VI.**, had two husbands. The first was King **Henry V.**, who won the great victory of **Agincourt**; the second was a Welsh gentleman named **Owen Tudor**. ⁽³⁸⁾ This **Owen Tudor** was the grandfather of **Henry VII.**, and **Henry VII.** of course bore the name of his grandfather and father.

There are five kings and queens in English history who bore the surname of "*Tudor*," and they came to the throne one after another. The first was **Henry VII.** ⁽⁴⁸⁾; the second was **Henry VIII.**, ⁽⁵²⁾ his son; the third was **Edward VI.**, ⁽⁶³⁾ the son of **Henry VIII.**; the fourth was **Queen Mary**, ⁽⁶¹⁾ the daughter of **Henry VIII.** and the sister of **Edward VI.**;



HENRY VII.

¹ The numbers in brackets following names refer to the Genealogical Tables on pages 266 and 303.

the fifth and last was **Queen Elizabeth**,⁽⁶²⁾ the daughter of Henry VIII. and the sister of Edward VI. and Mary.

These five—Henry VII., Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth—are called the *Tudor Sovereigns* of England. The first of them, **Henry VII.**, came to the throne in 1485; the last of them, **Queen Elizabeth**, died in the year 1603. It is the one hundred and eighteen years between 1485 and 1603, which are known as the *Tudor Period*; and it is about the events which took place during this period that we are now going to read.

The King's Title.

"Possession is nine points of the law."

The first thing which King Henry had to do after he came to the throne was to make sure that the same power which had given him the crown should not deprive him of it. The **House of Lancaster** had won the day at Bosworth Field, and Richard, the leader of the **House of York**, lay dead upon the battlefield. But though Richard was dead, there were other princes of the House of York, and there were some who had as good or better right to the crown than Henry of Richmond. The king knew well enough that unless he could win over to his cause some of those who had fought so long for the Yorkists, he would always be in danger of having to fight for his crown, and perhaps, like Richard himself, of losing it in some disastrous battle.

There was, however, a way by which the interests of the House of Lancaster and the House of York might be joined together, and the time had come when Englishmen were only too glad to put an end to the cruel civil war which had so long raged in their country.

King Edward IV. had four children. Of these two were boys—**Edward** and **Richard**—the little princes who had been so cruelly murdered in the Tower by their uncle Richard III. But though the little princes were dead, their elder sister—**Elizabeth**⁽⁴⁹⁾—was still alive. It was the wish of nearly all Englishmen that Henry VII. should marry the Princess Elizabeth, and thus unite the Houses of York and Lancaster.

Henry was a wise man, and he saw clearly that nothing would make him so strong and his position so sure as a marriage with Elizabeth; and even before the battle of Bosworth he had made up

his mind to such a marriage. At the same time, he was not at all willing to admit that he himself had no right to the crown. He thought that it would be a very bad thing for him if people were to say that he owed his kingdom to his wife, and that he himself had no right to it.

The first thing he did, therefore, was to call Parliament together, and to get them to pass an Act in which they declared that "*the inheritance of the crown should be, rest, remain, and abide in the most royal person of our Sovereign Lord King Henry VII. and his heirs, perpetually with the Grace of God so to endure, and in none other.*" This was really very much the same thing as saying that Henry VII. was king because he was king, that he had taken what he had got, and that he meant to keep it by the same means which had helped him to obtain it.

It was the old story of "Might is Right"; but "might is right" only so long as the strong man does not meet with a stronger; and all through his reign Henry found that, although his Parliament had declared that he was king and "none other," there were people who were quite ready to say that they had a better right than he, and that they would overthrow by force the crown which had been won by force.

It was not till the year after the battle of Bosworth that Henry married the Princess Elizabeth of York. He wanted everybody to understand that he claimed the crown for himself, because he was descended from **John of Gaunt**⁽²⁵⁾ and from **King Edward III.**, and not because he had married the daughter of King Edward IV. If he had once declared that the crown ought to go to the family of Edward IV., he would soon have been in a great difficulty, for Elizabeth was not the only one of Edward IV.'s family who might claim the throne.

We shall see how great a danger these relations of Edward IV. proved, and how much the king had to fear from them.

Lambert Simnel; or, Carpenter, King, and Kitchen Boy.

"There's many a slip 'twixt cup and lip."

There were two great rebellions against King Henry during his reign. The first was the rebellion of **Lambert Simnel**. Lambert Simnel was a young man, the son of a carpenter at Oxford. He was a handsome youth with pleasant manners. It chanced that this boy—for Lambert Simnel was only fifteen when we first hear about him—fell into the

hands of an Irish priest named Richard Simon, who took him over to Ireland.

At that time **Thomas Fitzgerald**, the **Earl of Kildare**, was Governor, or, as it was called, "The Lord Deputy," of Ireland. He was a great friend of the Yorkists, and was quite ready to believe anything which was likely to help the cause of the House of York and to injure the cause of King Henry. It so happened, therefore, that when Richard Simon told him something about the boy Simnel which, if it had been true, would have been a very bad thing for King Henry, the Earl of Kildare readily believed it, or, what was much the same thing, he said that he believed it.

The story which Simon the priest told the Earl of Kildare was a strange one. Edward IV. had had two brothers—**George, Duke of Clarence**,⁽⁴⁵⁾ who was the elder, and **Richard, Duke of Gloucester**, afterwards **Richard III.**,⁽⁴⁶⁾ who was the younger.

In the year 1478, the Duke of Clarence had quarrelled with his brother, King Edward. King Edward imprisoned the unhappy duke in the Tower of London, and there he was secretly put to death. There is a story that he was drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine. There was no doubt at all that the Duke of Clarence was dead; but he had left behind him a son named **Edward**, who was known as the **Earl of Warwick**.

The Earl of Warwick was still alive, and Henry VII. had taken care to have him shut up in the Tower and kept there. But now Simon came and told the Earl of Kildare and his Yorkist friends that the handsome boy whom they had brought with them was no other than this same Edward, Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence. He had escaped, said Simon, from the Tower, and he now came to ask all true friends of the House of York to take up his cause, and to fight for him against Henry of Lancaster, the Usurper.¹

It seems very unlikely that those who were the first to come forward to help Lambert Simnel really believed that he was the Earl of Warwick. All they wanted was to drive King Henry from the throne and to get power for themselves. To do this, they were quite ready to make use of Lambert Simnel, or of anybody else who would help their cause. At the same time, it seems very likely that many people both in England and in Ireland did really, for a time, believe in the pretender. At any rate, a large number of Yorkists joined him.

¹ As a matter of fact, even if it had been true that Lambert Simnel were really the Earl of Warwick, he would have had no right to the crown as long as Elizabeth, now the wife of Henry VII., was alive. Elizabeth was the daughter of Edward IV., the elder brother of the Duke of Clarence, and therefore came before the son of the Duke of Clarence in the succession to the crown.



THE TOWER OF LONDON.
(From a photograph by York & Son, Notting Hill, W.)

Margaret of Burgundy, who was the sister of Edward IV. and who had a deep hatred for King Henry, sent over two thousand well-trained German soldiers to help the so-called Earl of Warwick. The army landed in Lancashire, and marched into England.

Meanwhile, King Henry did two wise things. In the first place, he sent to the Tower, where the real Earl of Warwick was imprisoned, and had the poor boy brought out and taken through the streets of London so that everyone could see him. It was quite plain that if the real Earl of Warwick were still in the Tower, the young man who had just landed in Lancashire could not be the Earl of Warwick, but must be a false pretender.

The other wise thing which Henry did was to lose no time in sending an army against his new enemy. A battle was fought near Newark, in Nottinghamshire, at a place called **Stoke** (1487). It was a fierce fight, and the Germans sent by Margaret fought bravely; but at last they were overcome, and the victory rested with the royal troops. Lambert Simnel himself was taken prisoner and brought to London.

Everyone thought, that now Henry had taken the usurper prisoner, he would put him to death without mercy, and would probably send most of the nobles who had helped him to the scaffold at the same time. But Henry did a much wiser thing than this. One or two of the chief nobles who had helped Lambert Simnel were put to death; the rest were compelled to pay large fines to the king.

Some of them were commanded to come to the king's court in London. When they got there, they were invited to a great dinner given by the king. As they sat at dinner, a serving-boy came round bearing a wine-cup. When they looked at this serving-boy, they found he had a face which they knew. It was Lambert Simnel, the false Earl of Warwick, for whom they had been fighting, and on whose account they had lost such large sums of money. He had been the king's enemy; but he had fallen so low that the king no longer feared him — he only despised him. King Henry had given orders that Lambert Simnel, who had claimed the crown of England, should serve as a scullion in the royal kitchen. Such was the end of the first rebellion.

Perkin Warbeck.

"Our intelligence comes swiftly to us, that James of Scotland late hath entertained Perkin the counterfeit, with more than common grace and respect; nay, courts him with rare favours."—From Ford's play of "Perkin Warbeck."

"Save King Richard the Fourth! save thee, King of hearts! The Cornish blades are men of mettle; have proclaimed through Bodnam, and the whole country, my sweet prince monarch of England: four thousand tall yeomen, with bow and sword, already vow to live and die at the foot of King Richard."—From the same.

But this was not the only rebellion which took place in the reign of Henry VII. Five years after the capture of Lambert Simnel (1492), another pretender came forward. This was **Peterkin**, or **Perkin Warbeck**, the son of a Jew living at Tournay, in Belgium. Warbeck was not a boy like Lambert Simnel, but a handsome young man of great courage and ready wit. He pretended to be the **Duke of York**.

In the story of Richard III.'s reign we read how that cruel king had caused his two nephews, the sons of Edward IV., to be smothered in the Tower of London. The elder of these little princes was **Edward**, known in our history as "Edward V." The younger was **Richard, Duke of York**. It was this Richard, Duke of York, whom Perkin pretended to be. He said that the little prince had never been murdered, but that he had escaped from the Tower and had taken refuge abroad.

Warbeck, like Lambert Simnel, found his first friends in Ireland. He landed at Cork (1492), and, pleased with his friendly manners and with his handsome face, the people of Cork readily believed what in their hearts they wished to be true—namely, that he was Richard of York, rightful King of England. Warbeck soon found other and more powerful friends. **Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy**, helped him as she had helped Simnel, because she hated Henry VII. The **King of France** became his friend for a time, because he thought that he would weaken England by befriending him.

James IV., King of Scotland, helped him because, in those days, the Scots were nearly always ready to fight against England whenever they got a chance. A few of the great nobles of the House of York helped him because they wanted to get back their estates which Henry had taken from them; but the greater number of the people of England neither helped Perkin Warbeck nor believed in him. And

thus Henry was, at length, able to overcome his new enemy as he had overcome the old one.

Warbeck first tried to land in Kent; but those of his friends who got ashore were taken prisoners and hanged by the men of Kent. Then he went on to Ireland, where he found many friends but few helpers. He crossed over to Scotland, and here he got on better; for James went so far as to march with an army into Northumberland. Warbeck called on the people of Northumberland to rise and fight for their king; but the people of Northumberland did not do anything of the kind, and James had to march back again. When he got back,



SWORD PRESENTED BY HENRY VII. TO THE LOYAL CITY OF EXETER.

he told Perkin that he would rather he left Scotland, and so the poor adventurer had to set sail once more. At last he landed in Cornwall, and here it seemed as if he might have some chance of success.

Not long before, the men of Cornwall had had a great quarrel with the king. They had complained of the taxes which Henry had made them pay, and had at last refused to give any money at all. No less than 16,000 Cornishmen started to march to London, headed by **Michael Joseph**, a farrier of Bodmin, and **Thomas Flammock**, a lawyer. The Cornishmen marched as far as **Deptford** in Kent, where they were overtaken by the king's army and beaten after a fierce battle. Joseph and Flammock were executed, and, as a punishment for their rebellion, Henry laid still heavier taxes upon Cornwall.

When, therefore, Perkin Warbeck landed in Cornwall, he had little doubt that the Cornishmen, angry with the king, would come to his aid. Indeed, at first, many thousands joined him, and he got as far as **Exeter**; but the people of Exeter shut the gates of the city and stood

fast against the invader. From this time Warbeck's good fortune left him. He was overtaken by the King's army near Taunton, defeated, and taken prisoner. Among the treasures at the Guildhall at Exeter may still be seen the sword which king Henry gave to the loyal city, for shutting its gates against the rebels.

Perkin Warbeck was for a time kept in prison, and perhaps his life would have been spared, had it not been that a fresh plot was discovered. The Earl of Warwick, who was shut up in the Tower, tried to escape, and Warbeck was thought to have been helping him. Determined to have no more plots, Henry caused both the Earl of Warwick and Perkin to be tried; they were both found guilty: the earl had his head cut off, and Perkin was hanged (1499).

How the King Got Rich.

*"In things a moderation keep;
Kings ought to shear, not skin their sheep."*—Herrick,

The two rebellions about which we have just read show us plainly that Henry VII. had some reason to feel unsafe on his throne. None but a wise and prudent king could have escaped the dangers which threatened Henry on every side. But Henry showed himself to be wise and prudent—not only at home, but abroad. There were many indeed who held that the king's wisdom sometimes took the form of trickery, and that he was very ready to deceive others in order to gain an advantage for himself. But we must not forget that Henry had many enemies, and that, in the long run, he kept England safe and strong throughout the whole of his reign.

It is only by reading much longer histories than this that we can ever learn to understand all the difficulties that Henry had to fight against and to overcome in Europe. But it would not be right to pass over these difficulties altogether.

At that time there were three great Powers—**France, Spain, and The Empire.** *The Empire* meant, in the time of King Henry, that part of Europe which was ruled over by *The Emperor*. It included a great part of what is now **Germany** and **Austria**, the **Netherlands** (which are now *Holland* and *Belgium*), and parts of **Italy**.

There were nearly always disputes and quarrels going on between **France, Spain, and The Empire**, each Power trying to get stronger by

taking something from the other two. When France went to war with Spain, the King of France at once tried to get the Emperor to help him, or, at any rate, to remain quiet, while the King of Spain, of course, tried to make the King of France and the Emperor come to blows. In the same way, whichever Powers were fighting, both sides tried to get the help of **England**, and the side which did not get it, generally threatened to make war upon England for helping its enemies.

It was not a pleasant thing to be threatened in this way, and to be forced to take part in other people's quarrels; and Henry spent a great part of his reign in trying to keep out of war. To do this, he had to make promises first to one side and then to the other, and thus to keep free from trouble. He promised help to Spain against France. The Spaniards were afraid to lose his friendship; if they complained too much, he promised help and sent none. The French thought twice before making war upon England, lest they should turn an enemy who did them no harm into a real enemy who would fight against them with all the power of England at its back. And thus, throughout all his reign, Henry managed to hold the balance even, and, above all, to keep out of war.

But this was not all. Not only did King Henry lose nothing by war; but he found a way of gaining something from the very danger which threatened him. The people of England were more warlike than the king himself, and they were always ready at that time to fight the French. This is not wonderful; for we must remember that less than eighty years had passed since Henry V. had been king not only of England, but of half of France also, and it was less than fifty years since the last of the English troops had been driven out of France.¹

When Henry found that the people were set upon war, he said: "Very well, you can have the war; but you must pay for it." The people of England liked fighting, but they did not like paying taxes; and they soon found that under King Henry they would have more paying to do than fighting. Henry collected very large sums of money from the people, and at last crossed with his army into France. But he had very little intention of fighting, and the war came to an end almost as soon as it was begun. Then those who had paid the taxes found that the king had got the better of them. He had put a very large sum of money into his Treasury, and had spent very little upon the war.

¹ Calais and the two little towns of Hammes and Guisnes near it were the only parts of France which still belonged to England at this time.



HENRY'S DEPARTURE FROM THE EARL OF OXFORD'S CASTLE AT HEDDINGHAM.

Indeed, Henry soon became far richer than any King of England had ever been. There were several ways in which he collected money. In the first place, he put heavy fines upon those who were suspected of joining in the rebellions against him. Then he thought of another way.

During the Wars of the Roses, it had been the custom for great nobles to go about attended by very large numbers of their retainers and friends, who all wore the *livery* or uniform of the great noble whom they followed, and who were ready to fight, and to break the law at the order of their chief. These large bands of lawless men had become a real danger; and now that so many of the great nobles had been killed, the king felt himself strong enough to command those who were left to give up the custom of *keeping up their liveries*.

Henry forbade the practice. At first the nobles tried to resist; but



A "ROSE NOBLE" OF HENRY VII.

the king was too strong for them. He punished those who broke the new laws, and made them pay very heavy fines. One day the king paid a visit to the **Earl of Oxford**, one of the greatest of the nobles. When he came to the earl's castle, at Hedingham in Essex, the king found that great preparations had been made to receive him. Long lines of retainers in the earl's livery were drawn up on each side as the king entered.

The King looked at the men in livery and said nothing; but as he was leaving the castle at the close of his visit, he turned to the earl and said: "I thank you, my lord, for your good cheer; but I cannot endure to have my laws broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you." The king's attorney did speak to the earl to some purpose, and the earl had to pay a fine of £10,000 as a punishment for trying to honour the king by breaking his laws.

Henry also collected large sums of money by means of what were called *Benevolences*. A "Benevolence" means a thing that is given

of a man's goodwill and pleasure, and not by compulsion. But Henry's Benevolences seem to have had another meaning. When his ministers were in want of money, they drew up lists of those they thought ought to pay. Then the Royal Commissioner went to each person whose name was upon the list, and "invited him to give of his own free will" what the king asked for.

Generally those who were thus invited gave what they were asked to give; for they knew quite well that those who did not wish to give would very soon be *made* to give. Some of them complained that they were not rich enough to pay what was asked; but **Cardinal Morton**, the king's minister, soon found an excellent way of settling all questions of this kind. If a man lived in great state and spent much money, the cardinal asked him for a "Benevolence"; "for," said he, "the splendour in which you live and the money which you spend prove that you are a rich man, so pay at once."

If, on the other hand, a man lived very poorly, spending but little, and making no show, then the cardinal had an equally ready answer. "You spend so little, you are so saving and thrifty, that you must needs have plenty of money in your coffers. The saving man is the rich man, so pay at once." And so, either way, the king got his money. The people called this trap of the cardinal's, *Morton's Fork*. If a man escaped one prong, he was certain to fall upon the other.

What the Rich King did with His Money.

"The raising or keeping of a standing army within the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in time of peace, unless it be with the consent of Parliament, is against law."—From the "*Mutiny Act*" passed every year by Parliament.

It might seem at first sight as if the fact that Henry collected a great sum of money and became very rich, had but little to do with the history of England in our own day; but really it had a good deal to do with it, as we shall see.

Most of us know something about the British army. There must be few who have not seen some of our soldiers in their scarlet or blue coats. The soldiers in our army join it for a fixed number of years, and while they are in the army they serve in whatever part of the world they are ordered to serve in obedience to the orders of the Queen and Parliament. Our army is called a *Standing Army*

because it is called together not only in time of war, but is kept up in peace time, so that it may be ready to fight when a war comes.

But there was a time when there was no standing army in England. Before the reign of Henry VII., when the King made war, he used to send to all the vassals of the Crown to bid them come and join him and fight under his banner. At the same time he sent to all the great nobles and commanded them to bring their vassals also to join the royal army. Sometimes also

soldiers were paid, as they are now, to fight during the war. But when the war was over, all those who had fought in it went back to their homes again, and in time of peace there was no "Standing Army."

It was in the reign of Henry VII. that there first began to be a change in this matter. We have seen that the King was often in danger, and that he was threatened with the loss both of his throne and of his life. Henry felt that, unless he had always somebody to guard him against his enemies, he might one day be surprised and killed by some friend of the House of York, or by some pretender like Lambert Simnel or Perkin Warbeck. He therefore made up his mind to have what is called a *Body-Guard*—that is to say, a guard of armed men whose duty it was to attend him wherever he went, and to protect him against all harm.

These men were paid by the king, and they served him both in peace and in war. There were at first very few of them; but they were really the first "Standing Army" which England ever had. They were called the *Yeomen of the Guard*. If we want to know what a Yeoman of the Guard looked like, we need only go as far as the Tower of London, and there we shall see at this very day the Yeomen of the Guard, who wear the very same kind of dress which the Yeomen of the Guard wore in the time of King Henry VII., and whose duty it still is to guard the King or Queen of England when the queen or king goes anywhere in state.



A YEOMAN OF THE GUARD.

But before anyone can keep up a number of soldiers, one thing is necessary. He must have money to pay them; for soldiers, like other people, will not serve unless they be paid. Henry knew this well; and it was for this reason that he took so much trouble to save up money, to raise "Benevolences," and to make people pay him fines.

Nowadays it is not the queen who pays the army, but it is the people of England who pay the taxes which are voted by Parliament. If Parliament were to refuse to vote the money to pay the soldiers, there would soon be no army; but Henry knew very well that "*who pays the piper calls the tune.*" He wanted his soldiers to obey him, and not to obey Parliament. He therefore called Parliament together as little as he could help, and he managed to get nearly all the money he wanted without asking Parliament for it. This made him a very powerful king; for while he had soldiers who would do what he told them, and as long as he could get money without asking Parliament for it, he was really master of the country.

Sometimes Henry found that people refused to pay him the money which he asked for, or disputed his right to make them pay it. To get over this difficulty, he set up a new court which was called the **Court of Star Chamber**.¹ The first duty of the Court of Star Chamber was to help Henry to put down the great nobles whom he feared, and to see that the Statutes against "Liveries" were observed. Those who disobeyed were compelled to pay heavy fines, and thus the king got money without going to Parliament.

The judges of the Court of Star Chamber were generally friends of the king, and were quite willing to help him to get all the money he wanted. As time went on, the Court of Star Chamber often did very hard things, and came to be hated by the people of England, because those who appeared before it did not receive a fair trial. When we read further on in English history, we shall find that the Court of Star Chamber at last became so hated that it was put an end to by Parliament, and the kings of England were forbidden ever to set up such a Court again.

¹ It was called the Court of *Star Chamber* because the ceiling of the chamber at Westminster in which the judges sat was decorated with stars.

Some Royal Marriages.

*"Hail, happy pair! kind Heaven's great hostages!
 Sure pledges of a firm and lasting peace;
 Call't not a match, we that low style disdain
 Nor will degrade it with a term so mean;
 A league it must be said*

Where countries thus espouse, and nations wed."

John Oldham: "On the Marriage of the Prince of Orange with the Lady Mary."

King Henry had four children—**Arthur**,⁽⁵¹⁾ **Margaret**,⁽⁵²⁾ **Henry**,⁽⁵³⁾ and **Mary**.⁽⁵⁴⁾ The name of **Princess Margaret** does not often appear in the history of England; but it is one that ought not to be forgotten, for it is from Princess Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., that **Queen Victoria** is descended. When she was nearly fourteen years old, Margaret was married to **James IV.**,⁽⁵⁵⁾ **King of Scotland**. It seemed a strange thing, at a time when England and Scotland were so often at war with each other, that an English princess should marry a Scottish king; but Henry wanted to make as many friends as he could, and he was glad to get the friendship of his neighbour, the King of Scotland, by giving him his daughter in marriage.

We shall see further on that the marriage between James and Margaret did not prevent England and Scotland from fighting against each other. But though the marriage did not bring peace at the time, it really helped to bring about lasting peace between England and Scotland.

James and Margaret had a son, James,⁽⁵⁶⁾ who became **James V.** of Scotland on the death of his father at the battle of Flodden. James V. had a daughter, **Mary**,⁽⁵⁷⁾ who became Queen of Scots. It was her son, **James VI. of Scotland**, who afterwards became **James I., King of England and Scotland**.⁽⁵⁸⁾

When Margaret and James were married, some of Henry's friends said to him: "What will happen if your sons die, or if they have no children? Will not the children of the King and Queen of Scotland have a right to the throne of England, and will it not be a very bad thing that this great kingdom of England should thus be added to the kingdom of Scotland?" "What you say may happen," replied Henry; "but I do not think that, if it does, any harm will be done. You may be sure that if England and Scotland are ever joined together,

the great and wealthy Kingdom of England will draw the smaller and poorer Kingdom of Scotland to it, and it will be the King of England who will be King of Scotland."

And this is what really took place; for when King Henry's grandchildren died, the crown of England went to the King of Scotland; but the King of Scotland came to London and was crowned there as King of England and Scotland, and the Parliament of England and Scotland is now held in London and not in Edinburgh. So the wise King Henry was right.

The king's eldest son was Prince Arthur. Henry hoped to make another friend by marrying Arthur. The King and Queen of Spain at that time were called Ferdinand and Isabella. They had a daughter named Catharine,⁽⁵¹⁾ and Henry proposed that Arthur should marry Catharine. Ferdinand and Isabella agreed,

and Catharine came over to England. After waiting a long time while King Henry and her parents were disputing as to how much money should be paid by Spain as a dowry or wedding gift on the marriage of the princess, Catharine was married to Arthur. But within five months of the marriage Arthur died, and Henry's plan seemed all undone again.



MAP SHOWING BRITTANY AND THE NORTHERN AND WESTERN COASTS OF FRANCE. (See page 286.)

But the king would not so easily give up his hope of winning the friendship of Spain by marriage. First he offered to marry Catharine himself; but as the king was forty-five years old and his daughter-in-law, Catharine, was only sixteen, the young Princess's mother very naturally did not like the match.

Then Henry hit on another plan, and he got Ferdinand and Isabella to consent to their daughter marrying **Prince Henry**,⁽⁵²⁾ her brother-in-law. Prince Henry afterwards became King Henry VIII., and we shall see that this marriage brought many troubles with it, and did very little to secure for England the friendship of Spain.

Changes Abroad.

*"From the dim landscape roll the clouds away,
The Christians have regained their heritage—
Before the Cross has waned the Crescent's ray."*

Scott: "Vision of Don Roderick."

Two things happened during Henry's reign, in Europe, which cannot be passed over. The first was the **Expulsion of the Moors from Spain**. At one time the whole of Europe had been in danger of being overrun by the Turks, who were followers of **Mahomet**, or, as we call them, **Mahomedans**. After many fierce battles, the Mahomedans had been driven out of a great part of Europe; but they still remained in Spain, despite all the efforts of the Spaniards to turn them out.

It was in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella that the Spaniards, after much fierce fighting, at length succeeded in driving the last of the **Moors**—for so the Mahomedans who had come into Spain were called—out of their country (1499).

The second thing specially to be remembered has to do with another part of Europe. If we look at the map we shall see a great piece of France marked *Brittany*. Up to the reign of Henry VII. **Brittany** had been a separate Province, or *Duchy*, governed by the **Dukes of Brittany**, and not under the French king. In the reign of Henry VII. Brittany for the first time became part of France, for **Anne**, Duchess of Brittany, married **Philip**, King of France; and thus the kingdom of France and the duchy of Brittany were joined together, and have remained part of one country ever since.

It is easy to see how important this change was to England.



HENRY VII.'S CHAPEL, WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

The map shows us **Calais**, which belonged to England, and shows that the whole of the coast of the Channel, from St. Malo to south of Nantes, was under the Duchy of Brittany. It was only the bit between St. Malo and Calais that belonged to France. But when France and Brittany became united, the whole of the French coast, from Calais to Bayonne, was for the first time governed by one king, who was generally the enemy of England.

Ever since the time of Henry VII., England, whenever she has gone to war with France, has had an enemy's coast facing her shores for more than 600 miles. The great naval harbour and fortress of **Brest** is in Brittany.

King Henry died in 1509, in the twenty-fourth year of his reign, at the age of fifty-three. There is one thing by which he will always be remembered, and that is the beautiful chapel at the end of Westminster Abbey, which was built by him, and which is called after him, "Henry the Seventh's Chapel."

CHAPTER XXXVI.

HENRY VIII. AND ENGLAND AT WAR.

1509-1547.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF HENRY VIII.

Henry VIII., King of England, second son of Henry VII. and Elizabeth of York, b. 1491, became king 1509, d. 1547.

Wives of Henry VIII.:—

Catharine of Aragon, m. 1509, d. 1536.

Anne Boleyn, m. 1532, executed 1536.

Jane Seymour, m. 1536, d. 1537.

Anne of Cleves, m. 1540, d. 1557.

Catharine Howard, m. 1540, executed 1542.

Catharine Parr, widow of Lord Latimer, m. 1543.

Mary, daughter of Henry and Catharine of Aragon, afterwards Queen of England, b. 1516.

Elizabeth, daughter of Henry and Anne Boleyn, b. 1533, afterwards Queen of England.

Edward, son of Henry and Jane Seymour, b. 1537, afterwards King of England.

Louis XII., King of France, d. 1515.

Francis I., King of France, d. 1547.

Henry II., King of France, son of Francis I., d. 1559.

Ferdinand II., King of Castile and Aragon, d. 1512.

Ferdinand V., King of Spain, 1516.

Charles I., grandson of Ferdinand V., also reigned as "the Emperor Charles V."

Maximilian I., Emperor, d. 1519.

James IV., King of Scotland, killed in battle at Flodden, 1513.

Margaret Tudor, wife of James IV., d. 1541.

James V., King of Scotland, d. 1542.

Mary, daughter of James V., afterwards Queen of Scotland, b. 1542.

Julius II., Pope, d. 1513.

Leo X., Pope, d. 1522.

Adrian VI., Pope, d. 1533.

Clement VII., Pope, d. 1534.

Paul III., Pope.

Soliman the Magnificent, Sultan of Turkey, 1520.

Thomas Wolsey, afterwards Cardinal Wolsey, d. 1530.

Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Thomas Cromwell, executed 1540.³

Sir Thomas More, Speaker of the House of Commons, and Lord Chancellor, executed 1535.

John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's, d. 1519.

Cardinal Beaton, Archbishop of St. Andrews, Regent of Scotland, assassinated 1546.

Martin Luther, the great German Reformer, d. 1546.

Calvin, the great French Reformer, d. 1564.

John Knox, follower of Calvin.

William Tyndal, translator of the Bible, burned in the Netherlands, 1536.

Miles Coverdale, assistant of Tyndal,

Great Painters:—

Leonardo da Vinci (Florentine), d. 1520.

Raphael (Roman), d. 1520.

Perugino (Roman), d. 1524.

Albert Dürer (German), d. 1528.

Correggio (Italian), d. 1534.

Holbein (German), d. 1543.

Michael Angelo (Florentine).

Titian (Venetian).

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF HENRY VIII.

1509. Henry VIII. marries Catharine of Aragon, June 3rd.

1512. St. Paul's School founded by Dr. Colet.

1512. Henry declares war against France.

1513. Henry invades France. Battle of "The Spurs."

Scottish invasion of England. Battle of Flodden.

1514. Peace between England and France.

Mary (sister of Henry) marries Louis XII.

Margaret (sister of Henry) marries Douglas, Earl of Angus.

Wolsey made Archbishop of York.

1515. Mary (Henry's sister) marries Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

Wolsey created cardinal, papal legate, and chancellor.

1516. Birth of Princess Mary.

1520. Field of the Cloth of Gold.

Magellan passed through the Straits which have since borne his name.

1521. Duke of Buckingham executed for high treason.

The title of "Defender of Faith" given to Henry by Leo X.

1522. War with France and Scotland.

First circumnavigation of the globe (in 1,154 days, by Magellan's expedition).

1523. Parliament assembled. Sir T. More Speaker.

1524. Peru discovered by Pizarro and Almagro.

1525. Henry tries to raise money without authority of Parliament.

1526. Publication of Tyndal's version of the New Testament.

Soliman the Magnificent, Sultan of Turkey, takes Hungary.

1529. Fall of Wolsey. More Chancellor.

Cranmer advises Henry to obtain the opinions of the Universities as to divorce with Catharine.

The Turks defeated before Vienna.

1530. Death of Wolsey, November 28th, at the age of 59.

1531. Henry divorces Catharine.

1532. Henry marries Anne Boleyn.

Cranmer Archbishop of Canterbury. Sir T. More resigns chancellorship.

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1533. Appeals to Rome prohibited by Parliament. Cranmer declares Henry's marriage with Catharine illegal. Pope declares Cranmer's proceedings null and void.

Elizabeth born at Greenwich, September 7th.

Tyndal's translation of the New Testament publicly burned by Tonstal, Bishop of London.

1534. Parliament settles succession on Henry's second marriage.

Parliament declares Henry supreme head on earth of the English Church.

Revolt of the Earl of Kildare in Ireland put down.

Canada discovered by Cartier, a French navigator.

1535. Sir T. More beheaded, July 6th, aged 53.

The Pope excommunicates Henry, and lays England under an interdict.

Tyndal and Miles Coverdale publish a more correct version of the Bible.

Tobacco first known in Europe.

1536. Catharine dies at Kimbolton, aged 50.

Parliament passes an Act for the suppression of minor monasteries: 376 of them granted to the king.

Anne Boleyn beheaded.

A new English version of the Scriptures ordered to be printed.

Henry marries Jane Seymour. Parliament settles succession on the children of Henry and Jane.

California discovered by Cortes.

1536 7. "The Pilgrimage of Grace."

1537. Prince Edward born. Jane Seymourdies.

1538. General suppression of monasteries.

1539. Parliament confirms surrender of monasteries. English translation of Bible allowed to be freely circulated.

Cranmer's Bible published.

1540. Henry marries Anne of Cleves. Cromwell disgraced and executed, July 28th.

Anne of Cleves divorced.

Henry marries Catharine Howard.

Cherry-trees brought from Flanders and planted in Kent.

1542. Catharine Howard beheaded. Scottish army defeated at Solway.

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|--|--|
| Mary, Queen of Scots, born December 7th. Her father, James V., dies December 14th.
Cardinal Beaton made Regent of Scotland.
Henry takes title of King of Ireland. Parliament makes Ireland a kingdom.
1543. Henry marries Catharine Parr.
1544. War with Scotland. | 1545. French attempt to land in England, but are repulsed.
1546. Death of Luther, aged 62, February 18th.
Assassination of Cardinal Beaton, May 28th.
1547. Henry dies, at the age of 56, January 28th. |
|--|--|

King Harry.

Every inch a King."

We now come to the story of **Henry VIII.**⁽⁵²⁾ and his long reign. King Henry VIII. is a well-known figure in English history. Whatever may have been his faults, and he had many, there can be no doubt that by far the greater number of the people in England who lived in his time loved him, and thought him a great king. *King Harry*, *Bluff King Hal*, are the names by which he went.

He came to the throne when he was a mere youth. He was not quite eighteen years old when his father died. Fair, ruddy, strongly-built, and active, he seemed not only to his English subjects, but to foreigners, the finest-looking man of all the kings of Europe.

The king, too, had a merry mind. He was fond of sport, fond of exercise, fond of good living, fond of show: these were just the things to make him popular with the people. It is true that he was also very fond of having his own way, and that he was selfish and overbearing; but those who suffered most from his self-will were those who stood nearest to him—his ministers and the great nobles. Many of these were put to death by the king's orders, and many of them lost their fortunes because they did not please him.

But, to tell the truth, the common people of England were often not sorry to see the great nobles who lived among them lose their heads or their properties, and as long as King Henry let the people go their own way, and did not tax them too heavily, they were always ready to call out "God save his Highness!" and to praise a King of England who showed himself so strong and so determined.

We shall see, however, that when King Henry did try to take too much money out of the pockets of the Commons, they were as ready to quarrel with him as any of the nobles; but this happened very seldom, and it is true to say that to the day of his death Henry was beloved by far the greater number of his people.

We know very well what the king was like. Indeed, he is the first King of England whose face is really familiar to us. It was in his day that one of the first and one of the greatest portrait-painters of modern times began to paint pictures in England. **Hans Holbein**, the German, has left us pictures of Henry which, beyond all doubt, show us the king just as he appeared in his own royal court of Windsor.

We often hear King Henry spoken of as the *Fat King*: and very plump he certainly was. We can see in Holbein's picture the rings half sunk in his fat fingers. His cheeks were fat, his figure was large, and as he grew older he became somewhat too stout. His eyes were small, and not very hand-



HENRY VIII.

(From the painting by Holbein, in the possession of the Earl of Warwick.)

some to our way of thinking nowadays; but there seems no doubt that though it is the fashion to flatter kings and great men, those who saw King Henry and who spoke of him as a dignified and handsome prince, gave expression to the general opinion of the time.

The king had many faults. He did many things which seem very hateful to us now; though it is not always easy for us to judge about the right and wrong of things which happened more than three hundred years ago. But one thing is certain about King Henry—he had a very strong will, and not only that, but he was strong enough to get his will carried out. Some of the greatest men who ever lived in England were Henry's ministers. These men rose to great power, and it seemed as if they could rule all England, and King Henry as well. But when they came to oppose the king, each of them in turn found out that he had met with a stronger man than himself. They lost first of all their offices, and then their lives.

Nor was it only the king's ministers who found that Henry was a dangerous man to anger. King Henry reigned thirty-eight years, and during that time he was married no less than six times. His first wife, **Catharine of Aragon**,⁽⁵¹⁾ a Spanish princess, he divorced; his second wife, **Anne Boleyn**,⁽⁵³⁾ an English lady, was put to death by her husband's command because she offended him; his third wife, **Jane Seymour**,⁽⁵⁴⁾ also an English lady, died within two years of her marriage. His fourth wife, **Anne of Cleves**, a Dutch princess, he divorced. His fifth, **Catharine Howard**, the daughter of an English duke, fared no better than his second, for she too was beheaded by order of the king. His last wife, **Catharine Parr**, a daughter of an English knight, had the good fortune to outlive him.

It is the story of this strange king that we are now going to read about. It is a story which is the more interesting because it took place at a time when many great changes were going on in England, and when many great men and women were living who have become famous in the history of our country.

Foreign Friends and Foes—The Battle of the "Spurs."

*"For those that fly may fight again,
Which he can never do that's slain."*

Butler: "Hudibras."

The reign of Henry VIII. was a long one, lasting no less than *thirty-eight years*. Every part of it was marked by events which were of great interest and importance in the history of England. It is not easy in a short book like this to give a full account of all that took

place; but we must be content to read about the most important things, and about those which have had most to do with making England what it is. For this reason we must give only a short space to matters which took up a long time, and which occupied much attention in the early years of Henry's reign.

These matters are those which concern the dealings of the king and his ministers with the other Kings of Europe, matters which we should now call questions of *Foreign Policy*. At the time when Henry VIII. came to the throne, there were three great Powers in Europe: **France, Spain, and The Empire.**¹

A fourth Power was **England**, which, however, was not thought by any of the other three to be on an equal rank with them, and which indeed was not yet as powerful as any of them. The other nations of Europe were soon to find out that the best of them had found its match in the Island Kingdom; but at this time they thought of it only as a useful ally which might help a friend with a round sum of money, and with two or three thousand soldiers who would be hard to beat when they once took to fighting. Henry VII. had done something to show the Emperor and the Kings of France and Spain that England was a country to be reckoned with, and Henry VIII. was not the man to give up anything that his country had won.

He eagerly followed in the footsteps of his father, and hastened to join in the rivalry between the sovereigns of Europe. It is hard in our days to understand the way in which arrangements were made between great countries in the days of Henry VIII. For, indeed, in those days there was no trick, no deceit, no stratagem, which the ministers of the great countries of Europe were not ready to practise. Nor must it be forgotten that the kings and emperors themselves often took the chief part in making bargains and treaties, and if they did not take part themselves, they sent their favourite ministers with secret orders to act for them.

It is most wearisome to read through all the accounts of the plotting and bargaining which went on between the Kings of Europe in the first years of Henry VIII.'s reign. France, Spain, and The Empire each wanted to be master of Europe, and each in turn, in order to become master, tried to ruin the other.

At one time France sought the aid of Spain against The Empire, at another time Spain and The Empire joined forces against France, and each nation in turn tried by promises and threats to win England to its side, or to prevent her from joining its enemies. It often happened that while the King of France was promising aid and

¹ See page 277.

assistance to the King of England, he was secretly making just the same promises to the King of England's enemies; while, on the other hand, there is little doubt that the King of England never lost an opportunity of paying the King of France back in his own coin, and of deceiving him in his turn.

The plotting, the falsehoods, the battles, the peaces, which fill the

pages of the history of this time, have been for the most part forgotten; but some of them we must not forget because they made a great difference to the history and fortunes of our country.

It must be borne in mind that at the beginning of his reign, Henry VIII. was naturally the friend and ally of the King of Spain, for he had married his brother **Arthur's** widow, **Catharine**, who we know was the



CATHARINE OF ARAGON.

daughter of **Ferdinand** and **Isabella**, the King and Queen of Spain. The marriage of Henry with Catharine is a very important thing, to remember for two reasons. The first reason is that Henry, as the son-in-law of Ferdinand of Spain, naturally became for a time the enemy of Louis XII., King of France. The second reason is a more important one still, because, as we shall see, it led to great troubles, for the disputes, which afterwards arose as to whether the marriage were legal or not, led to great events in the history of England.

Why is it so important in our history that Henry, at the beginning of his reign, was an enemy of France? It is important for two reasons. In the first place it led to a short war with France, during

which a rather odd battle was fought. This battle took place near Terouenne, and is known as **The Battle of the Spurs** (1513).

It is called by this odd name because there was more running away than fighting, and the Frenchmen used their "spurs" a great deal more than they used their swords. It seems that the French cavalry were seized with a panic and rode off, despite the efforts of their officers to stop them. The alarm once given, it was impossible to stop the flight. The whole French army was thrown into confusion, and some of the most famous of the French nobles and soldiers were taken prisoners. Among them was the famous **Chevalier Bayard**, who was known throughout France for his bravery and gallantry, and who earned for himself the title of *Bayard, the knight without fear and without reproach*.

But out of the enmity between England and France there came a much fiercer and more important battle than the Battle of the Spurs, namely, the Battle of **Flodden Field**, in which the armies of England and Scotland met on the 9th of September, 1513, and in which no less than 6,000 Englishmen and 9,000 Scots lost their lives.

Flodden Field.

*"Still from the sire the son shall hear
Of the stern strife and carnage drear
Of Flodden's fatal field,
Where shivered was fair Scotland's spear,
And broken was her shield!"*

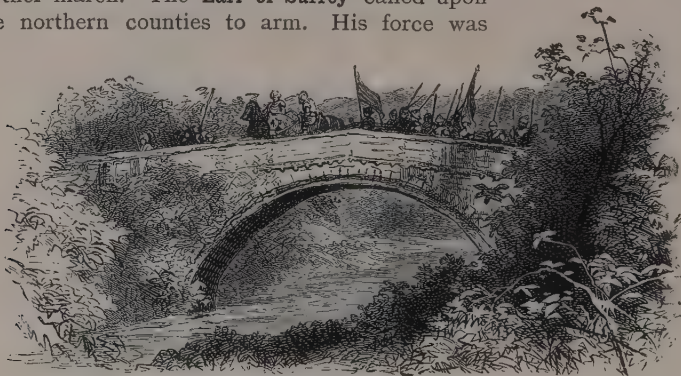
Scott: "*Marmion*."

How was it that the battle of Flodden sprang from the quarrel between Henry and Louis XII.? It came about in this way.

While the English army, under King Henry, was besieging the town of Terouenne, in France, **James IV.**,⁽⁵⁶⁾ King of Scotland, managed to pick a quarrel with England. There was very little really to quarrel about. The chief matter was a complaint that Henry had refused to give up the jewels which his father, Henry VII., had left to Queen Margaret of Scotland. But James, a brave but rash man, did not need much of an excuse for going to war with the old enemies of his country, especially at a time when England was fighting against the French, who had so long been the friends of Scotland. James sent a message to King Henry ordering him to leave France; and he did more, for he sent three thousand Scotsmen to help King Louis

King Henry sent the Scottish messenger back with a very flat refusal, but before the messenger could reach King James, the Scottish troops crossed the Border, plundering and burning. A few days later the king himself at the head of a great Scottish army, which was said to number no less than a hundred thousand men, marched south from Edinburgh, and on the 22nd of August, 1513, crossed the Tweed, and a few days later fixed his camp on the side of **Flodden Hill**, which lies on the Cheviot Mountains. In front of him flowed the **River Till**.

It was not long before an English army came out to stop his further march. The **Earl of Surrey** called upon the northern counties to arm. His force was



"Standards on standards, men on men,
... sweeping o'er the Gothic arch."

TWISEL BRIDGE.

soon joined by **Lord Thomas Howard**, High Admiral of England, with 5,000 men. With an army numbering 25,000 in all, he advanced to Flodden. He saw at once that it was impossible to attack the Scottish army in front, for the deep waters of the Till would check the advance of the troops. He therefore decided to try to draw King James from the position which he had taken up.

To do this he marched his army across the Till, passing by a single narrow bridge. James has been much blamed for not attacking the English while they were crossing the river. Whatever may have been the reason for his failing to do so, it is certain that Surrey's army was allowed to cross without interference, and soon the Scots, to their dismay, saw the English army between them and their own country.

In the wonderful account which Sir Walter Scott gives of the battle

in his great poem *Marmion*, the march of the English army across the Till is thus described :—

“ From Flodden ridge
The Scots beheld the English host
Leave Barmore Wood, their evening post,
And heedful watched them as they crossed
The Till by Twisel Bridge.

“ High sight it is, and haughty, while
They dive into the deep defile ;
Beneath the caverned cliff they fall,
Beneath the castle's airy wall.
By rock, by oak, by hawthorn tree,
Troop after troop are disappearing ;
Troop after troop their banners rearing ;
Upon the eastern bank you see,
Still pouring down the rocky den,
Where flows the sullen Till,
And rising from the dim-wood glen,
Standards on standards, men on men,
In slow succession still.

“ And, sweeping o'er the Gothic arch,
And pressing on, in ceaseless march,
To gain the opposing hill.
That morn, to many a trumpet clang,
Twisel ! thy rocks deep echo rang ;
And many a chief of birth and rank,
Saint Helen ! at thy fountain drank.
Thy hawthorn glade which now we see
In spring-tide bloom so lavishly,
Had then from many an axe its doom,
To give the marching columns room.

“ And why stands Scotland idly now,
Dark Flodden ! on thy airy brow,
Since England gains the pass the while
And struggles through the deep defile ?
What checks the fiery soul of James ?
Why sits that champion of the dames
Inactive on his steed,
And sees, between him and his land,
Between him and Tweed's southern strand,
His host Lord Surrey lead ? ”

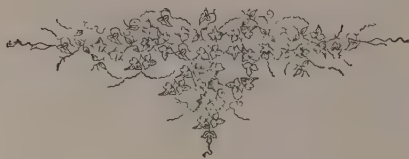
The Scots could now no longer resist the temptation to attack the enemy. King James ordered the camp to be burnt, and under cover of the smoke he swept downwards on Surrey's army.

"From the sharp ridges of the hill,
All downward to the banks of Till,
Was wreathed in sable smoke;
Volumed and fast, and rolling far,
The cloud enveloped Scotland's war,
As down the hill they broke;
Nor martial shout, nor minstrel tone,
Announced their march; their tread alone,
At times one warning trumpet blown,
At times a stifled hum,
Told England, from his mountain-throne
King James did rushing come.
Scarce could they hear or see their foes,
Until at weapon-point they close."

The battle which followed was long and fierce, but at last fortune decided in favour of the English. King James himself was left dead upon the field, surrounded by the bravest of his army, who had given up their lives in the vain attempt to save their king. No less than 9,000 Scots fell in the battle, and among the dead were members of the noblest families of Scotland.

The English did not follow up the victory, but were content that Scotland was now compelled to give up helping the French.

But the war between France and England did not last long. At that time, though friendships were quickly broken, they were quickly made again. **Louis**, King of France, soon found means to separate Henry from his ally the **Emperor**, and a peace was made between England and France in August, 1514. As a condition of the peace, Henry gave his beautiful sister **Mary Tudor**,⁽⁵²⁾ then only sixteen years old, as a bride to the old King of France. Happily, Louis lived only a very short time after his marriage, and Mary at once married **Charles Brandon**,⁽⁶⁰⁾ Duke of Suffolk, whom she had always loved.



CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE GREAT CARDINAL AND THE KING'S DIVORCE.

Cardinal Wolsey.

*"This Cardinal,
 Though from a humble stock, undoubtedly
 Was fashioned to much honour from his cradle.
 He was a scholar, and a ripe and good one;
 Exceeding wise, fair-spoken, and persuading;
 Lofty and sour to them that loved him not;
 But, to those men that sought him, sweet as summer;
 And though he were unsatisfied in getting,—
 Which was a sin—yet in bestowing, madam,
 He was most princely. Ever witness for him
 Those twins of learning, that he raised in you,
 Ipswich and Oxford."—Shakespeare: "King Henry VIII."*

IT was during this time of wars and treaties, when Henry was making promises to the other sovereigns of Europe, and breaking them as often as he made them, that a great man rose into fame in England. This was **Thomas Wolsey**, whom we usually speak of as **Cardinal Wolsey**.

It cannot be doubted that Wolsey was one of the greatest men of the time in which he lived, and his greatness was admitted not only in England, but throughout Europe. He was born at Ipswich in the year 1471. His father was a wool merchant, and must have been well off, for he sent his son to college at Oxford, where young Wolsey soon distinguished himself. He entered the Church, and soon became employed by Henry VII., who sent him on important business to the Continent. But it was not till Henry VIII. became king that Wolsey began to rise rapidly. The new king found in him the most agreeable of companions and the wisest of counsellors. No reward seemed too great for the king's favourite, and from one high office he passed on to another.

Soon Wolsey became the wealthiest and the most powerful man in England next to the king. In 1515 the Pope made him a **Cardinal**,

and it seemed at length as if Wolsey had obtained all that even he could ever wish for. Wherever the king went, Wolsey accompanied him. Treaties were made by the advice of the Cardinal, and sometimes his name was put on treaties by the side of that of the king, as if he were indeed king himself, and not a subject. The most wonderful stories are told of his wealth and of the splendid state in

which he lived.



CARDINAL WOLSEY.
(From the painting by Holbein.)

Here is an account of the great man's household, taken from the Chronicle of King Henry VIII.:—"You shall understand that he had in his hall continually three boards, kept with their several principal officers, that is to say, a 'steward' which was always a priest; a 'treasurer' a knight; and a 'controller' an esquire; also a 'cofferer' being a doctor; three 'marshalls'; three 'yeomen ushers' in the hall, besides two 'grooms,' and 'almoners.' Then in the hall kitchen, two 'clerks of the kitchen,' a 'clerk controller,' a 'surveyor of the dresser,'

a 'clerk of the spicery,' the which together kept also a continual mess in the hall.

"Also in his hall kitchen he had of 'master cooks' two, and of other 'cooks,' 'labourers,' and 'children of the kitchen,' twelve persons; four 'yeomen of the silver scullery,' two 'yeomen of the pastry,' with two other 'pastelers' under the yeomen. Then in his prime kitchen a 'master cook,' who went daily in velvet or in satin, with a chain of gold."

And so the list goes on for a whole long page of the Chronicle, including, among many other officers and servants, a "yeoman of the



THE QUADRANGLE OF CHRIST CHURCH (COLLEGE), OXFORD.
(From a photograph by H. W. Taunt & Co., Oxford.)

barge," a "master of the horse," a "master of the children," "cross-bearers," "singers," "cup-bearers," "carvers," a "herald," a "keeper of the tents," an "apothecary," a "physician," sixteen "stable grooms," twenty-four "waiters," sixteen "chaplains," a "chaff-wax," four "minstrels," and a "clerk of the green cloth."

When, in the year 1520, King Henry met **Francis I.**, King of France, near **Calais**, Wolsey was the foremost figure among the English who accompanied the king. The meeting itself was one that was long remembered. It is known in history as **The Field of the Cloth of Gold**, so splendid were the dresses which were worn by the two kings and by the gorgeous train of nobles who accompanied them. The very tents in which the two kings and their followers lived during the whole time of the festivities were of cloth of gold and of embroidery. There are pictures which give us some idea of this famous meeting between the kings of England and France, and both in the pictures and in the written accounts it is always the great Cardinal Wolsey who takes the foremost place after the king.

But though Wolsey was rich, he was certainly generous with his money. He built a splendid palace at **Hampton Court**, near London, and afterwards gave it to the king. If we want to know what Hampton Court Palace was like, we have only to take the train from Waterloo Station in London to Hampton Court, a journey of not more than forty-five minutes; and we can see for ourselves the great and beautiful building.

Nor is Hampton Court the only mark of Wolsey's generosity. In his own town of **Ipswich** he founded a Grammar School, which exists to this day. At **Oxford** he built the great and beautiful college first called **Cardinal College**, and now known as **Christ Church**. Nor was this all. He did much to assist learned men, and to help on education. It is clear that Wolsey made a wise use of his wealth; but, unhappily for himself, like many another man, he was never contented with the success he had won while there was still anything more to win. He had been made *Bishop*, *Cardinal*, *Chancellor*, but there was one thing more he had set his heart on, and that was to be made *Pope*. It was this ambition which at last brought about his downfall.

The Fall of Wolsey.

*"O Cromwell, Cromwell!
Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my king, He would not in my age
Have left me naked to my enemies."*

Shakespeare: "King Henry VIII."

To understand how it was that Wolsey's wish to become Pope led to his downfall we must go back to the history of King Henry himself. It must be remembered that Henry had married, when he was quite young, **Catharine of Aragon**, daughter of the King and Queen of Spain. For many years the king and queen had lived together in happiness, or, at any rate, without quarrelling. They had only one child, a girl, who was born in 1516, and who was called **Mary**.⁽⁵⁸⁾

They had no son, and this made Henry discontented, for he longed for a son to come after him on the throne; and as time went on, Henry grew tired of his queen, and wished to put her away, and marry in her stead **Anne Boleyn**, one of Queen Catharine's ladies-in-waiting. At that time it was only possible for a man to put away his wife, or, as we call it, to get a divorce, by leave of the Pope, and unless Henry could get the leave of the Pope, he could not get rid of Catharine. The king asked the Pope to give him leave, saying that there was a good reason for a divorce, because it was against the laws of the Church that a man should marry his brother's widow.

Now Henry himself had married his brother's widow, for Catharine had been married to Arthur before she married Henry. It was true that Henry himself had been anxious to marry Catharine, and had got the Pope's special leave to do so at the time. But now all this seemed to be forgotten, and he was only too glad of an excuse which would enable him to get what he wanted. He decided to send Cardinal Wolsey to Rome to get the consent of the Pope, but when Wolsey got to Rome he found himself in a very hard position.

The Pope, who was named **Clement VII.**, was at that time very much afraid of the **Emperor Charles V.**, who had a great many soldiers in Italy, and could have done much harm to the Pope if he wished. But Charles was the nephew of Queen Catharine, and, naturally enough, he was very angry with King Henry for wishing to divorce

his aunt. Wolsey would have been glad to serve his king and to get the Pope's consent, but at the same time he hoped some day to become Pope himself, and he did not therefore like to offend Clement. The Pope, in his turn, feared to offend the Emperor Charles; and thus it happened that Wolsey had at last to come back to King Henry and to tell him that he had failed in his errand, and that the Pope had refused to agree to the divorce.



CLEMENT VII.
(From the painting by Titian.)

From that day Henry determined that he would be rid of Wolsey. As long as Wolsey would serve him and help him to get his way, he was willing to give him power and wealth; but now that the Cardinal had failed to gain what his master longed for, Henry was ready to forsake him and ruin him.

It was not long before Henry found excuses for showing his displeasure. He first charged

Wolsey with breaking the law by coming into the kingdom of England as a servant of the Pope, and not of the King of England. It is true that by the law of England *the Pope has no authority in our Island*, but it must not be forgotten that it was Henry himself who had welcomed Wolsey, when he first came, as the Pope's *Legate* or Ambassador, and that he had been glad enough to make use of his services.

Indeed, the charge was only an excuse. The king withdrew his favour from the Cardinal. In October, 1529, Wolsey was forced to give up the Great Seal, which was the sign of his office as Lord Chancellor of England. He sought to win back Henry's favour by giving up to him all his wealth, houses, and estates, and asking leave to go and live in his own bishopric. But the king would show no mercy. Parliament joined in the attack upon the fallen minister, and brought charges against him.

At last, after he had lost nearly all his property, Wolsey received a pardon for the crimes he was declared to have committed, and he was allowed to live at Richmond, near London. But he had many enemies, and soon the king's anger was stirred up against him again. In November, 1530, he was arrested in York, by order of the king, on a charge of high treason. An order was given to the Earl of Northumberland to bring him to London, but on the way Wolsey fell sick. Worn out, and at the point of death, he reached Leicester Abbey, where he was received by the abbot and monks.

Broken down in health and in spirit, he felt that death was approaching. It is said that his dying words were words of loyalty and good advice to the king who had treated him so unjustly, for he felt to the last that Henry had been most unjust to him. "Had I," said the dying cardinal, "but served my God as diligently as I have served my king, He would not have given me over in my grey hairs. But this is the just reward that I must receive for my diligent pains and study, not regarding my service to God, but only to my king." Thus died this great man (1530), who, with all his faults, should be remembered as one who loved England well and served her faithfully.

"The Defender of the Faith."

*"The majestic lord
That broke the bonds of Rome."*

Gray: "Installation Ode."

But it must not be supposed that because King Henry had not got what he wanted by sending Cardinal Wolsey to the Pope he had given up his object, or that he was one bit less determined than before to get rid of his wife, **Queen Catharine**, and to marry **Anne Boleyn**.

We have now to learn how it was that the king gained the object which he had so much at heart; but in order to understand this we shall have to go back a little and to read about things which had

been happening not only in England, but in other countries in Europe. So long as Henry believed that he could get the Pope's consent to the divorce, he was quite ready to admit that the Pope, and the Pope alone, had the right to give him leave to put away his wife. In fact, so ready was he to support the power of the Pope, that not long before Wolsey's journey to Rome, Henry had gone so far as to write a book which was intended to prove to all the world that the Pope was the only true head of the Church.

The Pope, on his side, was so pleased to find the King of England writing a book on his behalf, that he declared from that day forward, the King of England should be known as **The Defender of the Faith**. When we read what happened later in the history of Henry's reign,

we shall think this a very strange title for the king to possess, but having once got the title, Henry kept it; and not only did Henry keep it, but so did all the kings and queens of England who came after him, and who certainly could not be called "Defenders of the Faith" in the sense in which Pope Clement used the words.

If we put our hand in our pocket and are lucky enough to find there a penny or a shilling, we shall see on it the letters "**F. D.**"

These are the first letters of two Latin words¹ which mean "Defender of the Faith"; and it is because of the book which Henry VIII. wrote in defence of the Pope nearly four hundred years ago that **Queen Victoria** now has among her titles that of "**Defender of the Faith**."

But though Henry was quite willing to support the Pope while the Pope supported him, he very soon changed his view when he found that neither threats nor entreaties could make Clement give his permission for the divorce. Henry soon made up his mind that if he could not get what he wanted *with* the Pope's help, he would get it *without* it.

At first sight it is not easy to see why this quarrel between the king and the Pope over a question such as that of the king's marriage should be of great importance in the history of England, nor why it should be put into a book like this, which is only long enough to contain an account of the chief events that took place. But we shall see as we read on that this quarrel had very important



HISTORY ON A PENNY.

¹ Fidei Defensor.

results, and led to changes in England of which the consequences are felt by every English man and woman who is alive at this day.

As soon as Henry found that Clement would not consent to the divorce, he sent round to all the great **Universities** of Europe to ask the opinion of the learned men about the question. He thought that if he could get the learned men in all the Universities to say that the marriage with Catharine was against the law, the Pope would be obliged to change his opinion, and to give his consent. But, unluckily, most of the Universities either sent no answer at all, or sent the very answer which Henry did not wish to receive. They said that the marriage was according to law, and that Henry had no right to divorce Catharine.

And now at last Henry was driven to take a step which in those days was a very bold one. Up to that time the Pope had claimed to have authority over all the Christian countries

of Europe, and to be **Head of the Church** in all these countries. It was because he claimed to be **Head of the Church in England** that he had forbidden Henry to get rid of Catharine.

As long as Henry was willing to admit that the Pope had a right to interfere in England, it was plain that he could not get his own way. But as he was determined to get his own way, it was not unnatural that he should soon begin to consider whether, after all, a King of England were bound to obey the Pope, and whether it



THOMAS CROMWELL.
(From the painting by Holbein.)

would not be a good thing to say once for all that the King of England was not bound to obey any foreigner.

This was just the thought that did come into Henry's mind. It very often happens that when kings or other people in a high position, wish very much to be told that something they want to do is right, they soon find someone to tell them just what they want to hear. This was what happened in Henry's case. He wanted very much to be told that the time had come when the King of England ought no longer to obey the Pope, and two men came forward at that very moment to tell him that it was his duty to do exactly what he wanted to do.

These two men became very famous in later years. One of them was **Thomas Cranmer**, a clergyman, who was at this time a tutor in a private family. The other was **Thomas Cromwell**, who had been secretary to Cardinal Wolsey. It was **Thomas Cranmer** who advised the king not to trouble any longer about what the Pope said, but to ask the opinion of the learned men in the Universities.

Thomas Cromwell went farther than Cranmer, for he said that if the king were wise he would be his own master; that there was not room for two masters in England, and that Henry had only got to say that he was Head of the *Church* just as much as he was Head of the *Army*, and of the *Parliament*, and of the *Government* of the country, and there would be an end of all the difficulty. He went on to say that if Henry wanted an example to follow he had only to look to Germany, and there he would see that other Christian princes had already taken the bold step which he now advised.

Nothing pleases a man better than to receive advice which exactly falls in with his own views. Both Cranmer and Cromwell were richly rewarded for what they had done. Cranmer before long was made a bishop, and only two years later (1533) was raised to the high office of Archbishop of Canterbury. Cromwell was chosen by the king as his most trusted minister, and for many years held as great a power in England as his master, Cardinal Wolsey, had done before him.



CHAPTER XXXVIII.
THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION.
Martin Luther.

"We have got our open Bible, we have got faith and love, we can preach the Gospel of the grace of God."—Luther.

WHEN Thomas Cromwell told Henry that there were Christian princes in Europe who had already declared they would no longer obey the orders of the Pope, he said what was quite true. For some years past a great movement had been going on in Europe, and great changes had been taking place in **Germany** and in **The Netherlands**,¹ and in **France**.

These great changes soon reached England, and they are so important, and have had so much to do with the history of our country and the lives of our countrymen, that the whole of this chapter must be given up to an account of what the changes were, and what were the results which followed them.

The great movement which has just been mentioned is known in history as the **Protestant Reformation**, and it is to the Protestant Reformation that we owe the fact that England and Scotland are among the great *Protestant countries* of the world. In the year 1517 a German monk named **Martin Luther** began to attack the Pope and the Church. He said that the teaching of the Church was no longer what it ought to be, and that the priests withheld knowledge from the people which they had no right to withhold.

The Pope had always forbidden the **Bible** to be freely translated, and to be read by the people in languages which they could understand. It was only allowed to be printed in Greek or in Latin. Luther said that it ought to be translated into German, English, and French, so that Germans, Englishmen, and Frenchmen, and, indeed, all other people, might read the Scriptures in *a language which they could understand*. He complained, too, of many things which were done by the bishops and the priests, and he complained especially that persons were allowed to go about the country telling men that if they gave them a sum of money they would obtain a pardon for their sins. Luther said that no man could pardon the sins of another

¹ Now called Holland and Belgium.

man, and that it was a wicked thing to buy and sell these pretended pardons, or *indulgences*, as they were called.

It was not long before a great quarrel broke out between the **Pope** on one side and **Luther** on the other. The Pope tried hard to put down the German monk, but Luther was a bold man and went about fearlessly preaching and teaching. He said that the time had come



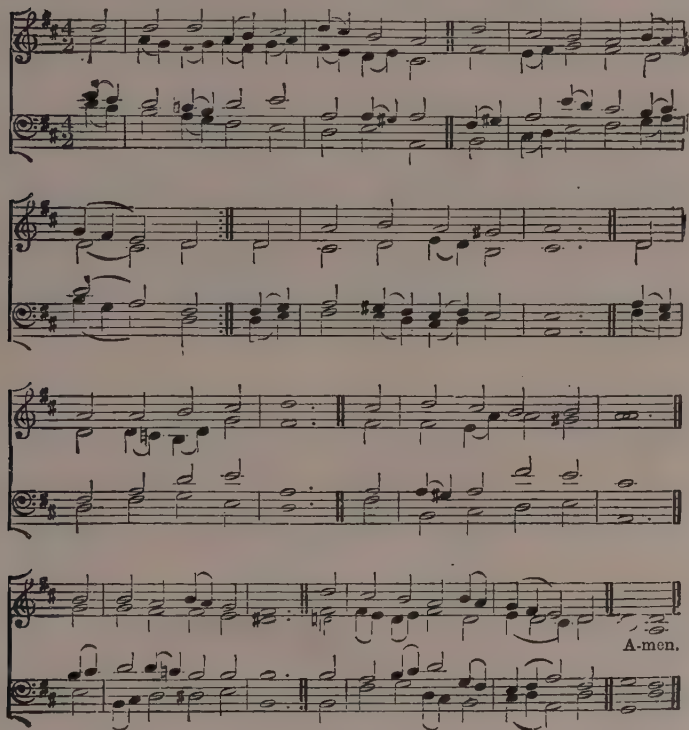
MARTIN LUTHER.

(From the picture by L. Cranach.)

when the Christian Church ought to be altered, or *reformed*; and he objected to, or *protested against*, the way in which the Church was governed at that time by the Pope. It was because Luther made this *protest*, and tried to bring about this *reform*, that those who agreed with him were called *Protestants* and *Reformers*. We shall see that the teaching and preaching of Luther, though it was begun in Germany, at length reached England, and that it is to this German monk that we owe largely the Protestant Reformation.

Luther's preaching convinced many people in Germany, and several of the German princes became members of the **Reformed Church**. A fierce struggle began between the **Protestants** or **Reformers** on the one side, and the **Roman Catholics**, or supporters of the Pope, on

THE TUNE OF "LUTHER'S HYMN."



From "Hymns Ancient and Modern," by permission of Messrs. Clowes & Son.

the other; and there was war for many years in Germany, France, and the Netherlands.

There is not room, however, in this book to tell the story of the Reformation in Germany. We must pass on to the story of the **Reformation in England**; but before we leave Martin Luther behind altogether, we shall do well to try and make a picture to ourselves of what this great man was like.

We can get some idea of what he was like from the picture on page 310. The description of those who saw him and knew him tells us even more than the picture. He was a man of good stature and of great strength, a man who feared nothing, and whose courage kept him up through all the troubles and dangers through which he passed. His face was rugged and massive; it was the face of a man who was honest as the day, full of determination, and quite without fear. For many years Luther's life was in constant danger; never for an instant, however, did he hold back from the work he had undertaken on account of the danger which threatened him.

There are many things we see and hear around us every day which should remind us of Martin Luther, and which we owe in part to the work he did. There is one thing which we owe to him that many of us know, though perhaps all those who know it are not aware that it had anything to do with the great Reformer. Luther wrote many books, of which some are now forgotten; but there is one thing Luther wrote and which is not forgotten, either in Luther's own land or in this country. This is the set of verses known as Luther's Hymn. In German the hymn begins like this:—

“Ein Feste Burg ist unser Gott.”

Here are two verses of the hymn in its English form:—

“A safe stronghold our God is still,
A trusty shield and weapon;
He'll help us clear from all the ill
That hath us now o'ertaken.
The ancient prince of hell
Hath risen with purpose fell;
Strong mail of craft and power
He weareth in this hour;
On earth is not his fellow.

“With force of arms we nothing can,
Full soon were we down-ridden;
But for us fights the proper Man,
Whom God Himself hath bidden.
Ask ye, who is this same?
Christ Jesus is His name,
The Lord Sabaoth's Son:
He and no other one
Shall conquer in the battle.”

The "New Learning"—Erasmus, Colet, and More.

*"The old order changeth, yielding place to new,
And God fulfils himself in many ways."*

Tennyson: "The Passing of Arthur."

It was not long before the teaching of Luther reached England. It was the custom at that time for students to go about from one great University to another, learning what they could from the most famous teachers in each place. English students soon brought to England an account of the New Teaching, or "*New Learning*."

By this time, too, many books were printed, and thus the writings of Luther and of those who agreed with him were brought over to England, and became known to many persons. Nor was the teaching of Luther the only thing which threatened the Roman Catholic Church. Before the printing press was invented, nearly all those who could read and write were priests or monks, and the few books which were written were generally kept in the churches or monasteries. It was not wonderful, therefore, that people got to think that books, and the learning that was to be found in books, belonged to the Church only, and that common people, who were not priests or monks, had no business to meddle with books or with book-learning.

But when the printing press had once been invented there came a great change. Every year numbers of new books were brought out, and these books were openly sold for money; so that anyone who could afford it could buy a copy and learn for himself those things which, hitherto, people had only been able to learn through the priests and the monks. All over Europe, and in England, men now began to read books and to explain them in their own way, and they began to find out many things that the priests had never told them. It was a new thing for people to think for themselves, and the priests, who had so long been accustomed to make people think in their way, did not like to see so many new books printed and read.

But those who loved the new books and longed to find out all that was in them, refused to stop reading and studying, even though the Pope and the priests ordered them to do so. And thus it came about that, in addition to Luther and his friends, the Pope found another set of people who did not admit that he had the right to give orders and to say what was right and what was wrong. Among those who were

the foremost to bring the "New Learning" into England were three men, **Erasmus**, **Sir Thomas More**, and **Colet**.

Erasmus was a native of Rotterdam, or what we should now call a Dutchman. He was a great student, and he could not only read Latin easily, but he could write most beautiful Latin also. He wrote many books, which became very famous in his time. The chief thing that he taught in all of them was that men ought to think for themselves, and not merely to believe things to be true because their fathers before them, or the priest, or the Pope, or anyone else, said they were true.



SIR THOMAS MORE.
(After the picture by Holbein.)

Although **Erasmus** was a Dutchman, he spent a great deal of his time in England. He was a great friend of **Sir Thomas More**, and he used to spend much time with More at Oxford and elsewhere. He also wrote many letters to **Sir Thomas More**, and received many letters from him in return. The writings of **Erasmus** are very clever and witty. A great deal of them is taken up in laughing at the ignorance of the people who lived in his time, and in showing them how ready they had been to believe just what they were told without taking

the trouble to find out whether it were true or false.

Thomas More, who afterwards became **Sir Thomas More**, is known in English history, not only as the friend of **Erasmus**, but as a good and noble Englishman, who lived a beautiful life and died a noble death. He first began life as a lawyer. In the reign of **Henry VII.** he became a Member of Parliament, and fourteen years after **Henry VIII.** came to the throne he was made Speaker of the House of Commons. In 1529 he was made Lord Chancellor, and in 1535 he was beheaded by order of the king, as we shall read a little farther on.

John Colet was a great scholar. He studied at the University of Oxford, and went abroad to Italy and to Paris to learn Greek. In Paris he made friends with **Erasmus**. He had already become a friend of

More's at Oxford. In the twentieth year of King Henry VII.'s reign (1505) he was made Dean of St. Paul's. His name is, or ought to be, very well known to many English boys in our day.

Up to a few years ago there stood a great building in St. Paul's Churchyard, opposite the Cathedral of St. Paul's. This building was **St. Paul's School**, one of the great public schools of England. It was **John Colet**, Dean of St. Paul's, who founded St. Paul's School. The school no longer stands in the old place in St. Paul's Churchyard, but has been moved to another part of London, where there is more space and fresher air; but it is to be hoped that the "Paulines," as the boys of St. Paul's call themselves, still remember and honour the name of their founder, **John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's**, the friend of Erasmus and Sir Thomas More.



CHAPTER XXXIX.

HENRY AS HEAD OF THE CHURCH.

Henry's Quarrel with the Pope, and What It Led to.

"Henry the Eighth by the Grace of God, of England, France, and Ireland King, Defender of the Faith, and Supreme Head on Earth of the Church of England, and Ireland."—Henry's title, taken from *Royal Letters Patent to Sir G. Cheynie*.

Now that we have read about **Luther** and the *Protestants*, and about **Erasmus** and the friends of the *New Learning*, it is time to go back to the story of Henry VIII. in England. In the previous chapter we read about Henry's quarrel with Pope Clement about the divorce which Henry wanted, but which Clement would not allow him to have. We read also how Thomas Cranmer and Thomas Cromwell had given the same advice to King Henry. "If," said Thomas Cromwell, "you cannot do what you want with the Pope's leave, why not do it without? All you have to do is to say that the Pope has no right to give orders to the King of England, and that the king, and not the Pope, is at the head of the English Church."

This advice fell in with Henry's own wishes; but perhaps if he had had to fight alone against the Pope, without anyone on his side, he might have feared to follow Thomas Cromwell's advice; for the power

of the Pope was very great, both in England and on the Continent. But, as we have just read in the last chapter, the Pope had already made two sets of enemies.

In the first place there were **Luther** and his friends the **Protestants**, in the second place there were men like **Erasmus** and **More**, who, though they had not quarrelled with the Pope, were not liked by many of the priests on account of the books they wrote and the ideas they taught. What then could be more natural than that Henry should become the friend of the Pope's enemies? And this, indeed, was just what happened.

The king, who but a few years before had been called "Defender of the Faith," now declared that whether the Pope gave his consent to the divorce or not did not matter. The King of England, he said, was the Head of the Church of England, and the Pope had no right to interfere. He allowed the Protestant preachers, whom the Pope had condemned, to come into England and to remain there unharmed. He made Sir Thomas More Lord Chancellor, and, what was more than all, he allowed the Reformers, or Protestants, to translate the Bible into English, and gave permission for the Bible to be freely read in all the churches.

But it must not be supposed that Henry had done all this to please either Luther and the Protestants, or Erasmus and the learned men. He had done it in order to get his own way, and to please himself. In May, 1533, Cranmer declared Catharine to be divorced. The king had already married **Anne Boleyn**, and Cranmer declared that the marriage was lawful, and so at last Henry got his way. Pope Clement was very angry, and declared that neither Henry nor Cranmer had any right to act without his leave.

But now that Henry had gone so far, he was not going back. If the Pope were to be his enemy, he determined that he in his turn would show himself a bitter enemy to the Pope. He commanded everyone to admit that he alone was Head of the Church of England. Those who would not submit were thrown into prison and their property was taken from them. Parliament was called together, and declared that the king was right and the Pope wrong, and Henry, having got Parliament on his side, was determined at any cost to make everyone bow to his will.

Among the victims of his anger were some of the worthiest and noblest men in England. **Fisher**, Bishop of Rochester, and **Sir Thomas More**, Lord Chancellor, were among the best friends of the king. They were ready to serve him, and they were ready to obey him. But there was one thing they would not do. They would not do what

they believed to be wrong, nor say what they believed to be false, even though the king bade them.

Neither More nor Fisher believed that the king had any right to disobey the Pope, and to make himself Head of the Church; and when they were called upon to swear that they would obey Henry as Head of the Church, they both of them refused to do so. Neither the age of Fisher (for the bishop was seventy-six) nor the goodness and faithful service of More could protect them from the king's fury. They were thrown into the Tower, and while they were there, Parliament, to please the king, declared them guilty of treason, and they were condemned to death. Fisher was executed at the Tower on June 22nd, 1535. It was not till a fortnight later, July 6th, that More met his fate.

But Fisher and Sir Thomas More were not the only victims of the king's savage temper. **Anne Boleyn**, his beautiful wife, for whom Henry had not feared to quarrel with the Pope, was among the first to suffer. The king charged her with not being true to him; she was tried and condemned to death, and on May 19th, 1536, was executed at the Tower.

She left behind her one child, who was christened **Elizabeth**,⁽⁶²⁾ and who afterwards became very famous in English history as **Queen Elizabeth**. The day after Anne Boleyn's execution Henry married **Jane Seymour**, who had been one of Anne's ladies, and who was the daughter of Sir John Seymour, a Wiltshire gentleman.

The "Hammer of the Monks."

"It has come to our ears, being at once publicly notorious, and brought before us on the testimony of many witnesses worthy of credit, that you, the Abbot before mentioned, have been of long time noted and diffamed, and do yet continue so noted, of simony,¹ of usury, of dilapidation and waste of the goods, revenues, and possessions of the said monastery, and of certain other enormous crimes and excesses hereafter written."

Letter from the Archbishop of Canterbury to the Abbot of St. Albans, 1489.

But though Anne Boleyn was dead, Henry's quarrel with the Pope was not at an end. Indeed, he had already found out that by keeping up his dispute with the Pope, he had always an easy way of growing rich left open to him. Throughout all England at that time there

¹ Simony, the crime of selling offices in the Church for money.

were great buildings known as **Monasteries** and **Nunneries**, which belonged to the Church, and in which **monks** and **nuns** used to live.

Many of these monasteries and nunneries had become very rich, and some of the best land in England belonged to them. Some of the monks lived good lives, and did good work in teaching and helping the poor among whom they lived. There were others who lived bad lives, and spent their money upon themselves, and who were a disgrace to the Church to which they belonged.

When Henry made up his mind to destroy the monasteries and nunneries, it was not hard for him to find out many bad things which could truly be said of the monks and nuns, and which he could use as an excuse for taking away their property.

But there can be no doubt that what made Henry most anxious to destroy the monasteries and nunneries was the great wealth which they possessed. It was **Thomas Cromwell** who was foremost in this work, and he soon won Henry's favour by the zeal which he showed. More than 800 monasteries and nunneries were broken up and destroyed, and the great wealth which belonged to them was seized by the king.

Perhaps, if this money had been wisely used for the good of the country, there would have been little to complain of, but Henry and Cromwell were most extravagant. Very large sums of money and the greater part of the lands which had belonged to the monks were given by the king to his favourites, and most of what he did not give away he kept for himself. Many of the most beautiful abbeys and churches were allowed to fall into ruin, and the schools which had been kept by the monks were in many cases shut up. So bitter was Thomas Cromwell against the monks, and so fiercely did he attack the monasteries, that he earned the name of *The Hammer of the Monks*,¹ by which was meant that he had hammered and crushed them to pieces.

But though the monks and nuns had in many cases ceased to do good, it is not wonderful that they had friends throughout the country. In many places they had helped the poor, in others they had taught those who had no other teachers, and they had allies among the great nobles. It is easy to understand, therefore, why when Thomas Cromwell "hammered" the monasteries to pieces he should have made many enemies. In **Lincolnshire** the friends of the monks rose in rebellion, but were soon put down by the king's friends.

It is interesting and amusing to read the answer which King

¹ In Latin, "Malleus Monachorum."

Henry gave to the people of Lincolnshire when they brought their grievances before him. If we read it we shall understand how great a person the King of England was in those days, and how little the people of the country had to do with its government. This is what the king said to the people of Lincolnshire:—

"THE KINGES ANSWER TO THE REBELLES.

"First we begyn and make answe're to the foure and sixe articles, because upon them pendeth¹ much of the rest. Concernyng chosyng of counsylors, I never haue² red,³ hard,⁴ nor knowne, that princes, counsailors and prelates should be appoynted by rude and ignorant common people, nor that they wer persones mete,⁵ nor of the habilitie⁶ to discerne and choose mete and sufficient counsailors for a prince: how presumptuous then are ye, the rude commons of one shire, and that one of the most brute and beastly of the whole realme, and of the least experience, to fynd faute with your Prince . . ."

A fiercer rebellion than that in Lincolnshire broke out in **Yorkshire** (1536-7), and a large army, collected from all parts of the North, was soon gathered together. The rebels marched with priests at their head carrying crosses and banners, and the priests promised their blessing to those who took part in the rebellion. The march of this northern army was called the **Pilgrimage of Grace**. At first it seemed as if the friends of the king would be beaten, but before long the royal troops succeeded in driving back the rebels, many of whom were taken and put to death, while the rest returned peaceably to their homes.

It is not easy to understand the part which Henry himself played at this time. Although he was an enemy of the Pope, he would not join openly with the Reformers. On one thing, however, he was determined, and that was that he was the Head of the Church of England, and indeed, head of everything else in England. It soon became clear that nobody was safe who dared to say or to do anything against the will of the king. At the same time, it is fair to King Henry to say, that he did not interfere with those who did not interfere with him, and during his reign the number of Protestants in England grew steadily larger.

¹ Dependeth.

² Have.

³ Read.

⁴ Heard.

⁵ Fit.

⁶ Capable of.

Anne of Cleves—The Fall of Thomas Cromwell.

*"For marriage is a matter of more worth
Than to be dealt in by attorneyship."*

Shakespeare : "Henry VI.," Part I.

In 1537 was born **Prince Edward**, the only son of Henry's third wife, Jane Seymour. Henry was delighted at the birth of a son, and the child was at once proclaimed Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall, and Earl of Chester. Farther on in this book we shall read how this little prince became **Edward VI.**,⁽⁶³⁾ **King of England**.

This is how the joyful event was spoken of:—

"THE BIRTH OF EDWARD VI.

"In Octobre on Saint Edwardes euen¹ was borne at Hampton Courte the noble Impe,² prince Edward whose Godfathers at the Christenyng were the Archbishop of Canterbourie, and the Duke of Norfolk, and his Godmother, the Lady Mary, the Kynges daughter, and at the bishoping³ was Godfather the Duke of Suffolk; at the birth of this noble prince was great fires made through the whole realme and great Ioye made with thanks geuyng⁴ to almightie God whiche hath sent so noble a prince to sced⁵ in the crowne⁶ of this Realme; But Lorde what lamentacion shortly after was made for the death of his noble and gracious mother, quene Iane, which departed out of this life the fourtene day of Octobre, next following"

For so it was, twelve days after the birth of Prince Edward, his mother, Jane Seymour, died.

It was two years before King Henry married again, and this time the wife whom he chose was a foreigner. Her name was **Anne of Cleves**, daughter of the Duke of Cleves, one of the Protestant princes of Germany. It was Thomas Cromwell who advised the king to marry Anne of Cleves. The friends of the Pope were very angry with Cromwell, and he thought he would be safe from their anger if he could persuade the king to marry a Protestant wife.

It was said that Anne was very beautiful; and a picture was shown to the king which seemed to prove that what had been said of her was true. But when the Queen came to England, and Henry saw her with his own eyes, he found she was exceedingly plain; and not only that, but she could not speak a single word of anything but German, which Henry himself could not understand. The king could

¹ Eve. ² Child. ³ Christening. ⁴ Thanksgiving. ⁵ Succeed. ⁶ Crown.

not refuse to marry Anne, according to his promise, but it was not long before he made up his mind to get rid of her.

Meanwhile he could not conceal his anger against **Cromwell**, who had led him into the marriage, and when Cromwell's enemies brought accusations against him, Henry gladly listened to them. Cromwell was arrested, tried for high treason, and executed (1540). He had long had few friends save the king, and now the king deserted him as he had deserted Wolsey. As soon as Cromwell was dead, Henry divorced Anne of Cleves. He treated her kindly, and gave her a house to live in, and money to keep it up. She lived quietly in England for seventeen years after her divorce, and long after Henry's death.

A month after he had got rid of Anne of Cleves, Henry married his *fifth* wife, **Catharine Howard**, niece of the Duke of Norfolk. In less than

eighteen months, Catharine had shared the fate of Anne Boleyn. Parliament, as usual, was ready to undertake any shameful and cruel work which the king ordered it to perform. Catharine was condemned by Parliament, January, 1542, and was beheaded in the following month.

It was not till the year 1543, eighteen months later, that the king married his *sixth* and last wife. This was **Catharine Parr**, a widow,



ANNE OF CLEVES.

(From the portrait by Holbein.)

and daughter of Sir Thomas Parr, to whom Henry was married in his fifty-third year. This lady had the good fortune to outlive her husband, and died in the reign of Edward VI. (1548).

Ireland, Scotland, and France.

—
*"There's a saying, very old and true,—
 If that you will France win,
 Then with Scotland first begin."*

—
Shakespeare: "Henry V."

Before we leave the reign of Henry VIII. altogether, we must turn our attention for a short time to what took place during the last part of that reign in **Ireland, Scotland, and France**. In Ireland a rebellion broke out. At the head of it was **Lord Thomas Fitzgerald**, the son of the Earl of Kildare. An English army was sent over, and after a long and fierce campaign, in which great cruelties were committed on both sides, the revolt was put down. The authority of England was now fixed more firmly in Ireland than it had ever been before, and Henry was the first of the English kings to take the title of *King of Ireland* (1542).

The troubles in **Scotland** were more serious. The party which then held power in Scotland had at its head **Cardinal Beaton**, who looked upon King Henry as one of the worst enemies of the Roman Catholic Church. Beaton and all his friends were ready to join in any war against the King of England. At the same time there were already many Reformers in Scotland who hated Cardinal Beaton, and who refused to help him against England. These quarrels between different parties in Scotland proved to be of advantage to England, for they led to much fighting in Scotland, and weakened the attack of the Scots upon England.

However, it was not long before an excuse was found for war between the two countries. **James V. of Scotland**⁽⁶⁴⁾ marched southwards at the head of an army, but his troops declined to follow him into England. Some of them also refused to obey the orders of the general whom the king appointed. They threw down their arms, and while all was confusion, the English troops attacked and defeated them.

It was while Scotland was suffering from these troubles that an event took place which proved to be of great importance, both

to England and to Scotland. On the 7th of December, 1542, was born **Mary**,⁽⁶⁹⁾ daughter of **James V**, King of Scotland, and of **Mary of Guise**, his queen. We shall read much more about this little Princess **Mary**, who afterwards became famous under the name of **Mary, Queen of Scots**. Indeed, it was not long before the little princess became a queen. Only seven days after she was born, her father, **James**, died, and **Mary** became from that day the rightful Queen of Scotland.

Henry very soon found himself at war both with **Scotland** and with **France**. He sent an army into France to help the **Emperor Charles** against **Francis I.**, King of France, but little came of the expedition. The emperor found that **Henry** was much more anxious to take **Boulogne** for himself than to help him to gain the object he had in view, and to capture the city of **Paris**.

Charles and **Francis** before long came to a separate agreement without consulting **Henry**, and the King of England found himself without an ally. For the first time for many a year the French fleet attacked the shores of England, and French troops actually landed in the Isle of **Wight**, but were driven back by the inhabitants. The war came to an end in 1546, and all that **Henry** had gained was the capture of **Boulogne**, which was taken after a long siege.

Nor did **Henry** meet with much more success in **Scotland**. He had demanded that the little Queen of Scots should be given in marriage to his son **Edward**, and this was agreed to by treaty in 1543. Both **Edward** and **Mary** were still quite young children. **Henry** required that the Queen should be sent into England for safe keeping. The Roman Catholic party in **Scotland**, under **Cardinal Beaton**, naturally refused to give her up. **Henry** sent the Duke of **Norfolk** with an army, and he found friends amongst the Protestant party across the Border. But the expedition was not a success, and the English troops were withdrawn without having succeeded in their object.

In the same year **Cardinal Beaton** was murdered. It was said by some that he had been murdered by **Henry's** wish; but though his death was a great blow to the Roman Catholic party in **Scotland**, and though it led to a fierce conflict in that country, it did not make the Scots more willing to give up their queen to King **Henry**.

About Ships, Flags, and Soldiers.

"Saint George he is for England
Saint Denys is for France."

Old Song.

The wars of which we have just spoken were not very important in themselves, and led to no great results at the time, but for one thing they ought to be remembered. Much of the fighting, both with France and with Scotland, had been fighting at sea, and for the first time we find that royal ships were built by order of the king for the special purpose of fighting at sea. One of the finest of these ships was the "**Great Harry**," of 1,000 tons. She carried twenty-three great guns, and some of her cannon carried shot weighing thirty pounds, which is heavier than most of the cannon-balls which were used at the battle of Trafalgar nearly three hundred years later. Some of the cannon made in this reign weighed as much as five tons.

It was Henry who first made a regular payment to soldiers who served in the ships of the Royal Navy; and the famous corps of the **Royal Marines** traces back its history to this time.

It was Henry also who first ordered that every king's ship should fly, at the masthead and at the bowsprit, the flag with the *Red Cross* on the white ground, which is called the **Cross of St. George**. This flag is now carried on every admiral's ship in the British Navy, and the red St. George's Cross may be seen in the middle of the **Union Jack**, if we look at the coloured picture at the beginning of this book.

There is an old picture of a seafight, which took place in the reign of Henry VIII., between Lord Howard, High Admiral of England, and Sir Andrew Barton, a Scottish privateer. In this picture the English ships may be seen with the *red St. George's Cross* for their flag, and the Scottish ships with the *white Cross* or *Saltire* of **St. Andrew**. In the flag which is now carried by all ships in the Royal Navy these two crosses are joined together.

It was in the year 1547 that Henry died. He was fifty-five years of age, and had reigned over thirty-seven years. Before his death he had made a will declaring that his son **Edward** should succeed him on the throne; that after Edward should come his elder daughter **Mary**, and that after Mary should come his second daughter, **Elizabeth**.



SEA FIGHT BETWEEN LORD HOWARD AND SIR ANDREW BARTON.

CHAPTER XL.

EDWARD VI.

1547-1553.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF
EDWARD VI.

Edward VI. King of England, son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour, b. 1537, became king 1547, d. 1553.

Mary, sister of Edward VI., afterwards Queen of England.

Elizabeth, sister of Edward VI. and Mary, afterwards Queen of England.

Mary, Queen of Scots.

Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, Lord Protector, uncle to Edward VI., executed 1552.

John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, Lord Protector.

Lady Jane Grey, daughter of Henry Grey, Marquis of Dorset, and great-granddaughter of Henry VII., m. Lord Guilford Dudley.

Lord Guilford Dudley, son of the Duke of Northumberland, husband of Lady

Henry II., King of France. [Jane Grey.

Charles I., King of Spain, known also as the Emperor **Charles V.**

Philip, King of Naples and Sicily, son of Charles V., afterwards Philip II. of Spain, and husband of Mary, Queen

Paul III., Pope, d. 1550. [of England.

Julius III., Pope.

Soliman the Magnificent, Sultan of Turkey.

Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Stephen Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, imprisoned in this reign.

Edmund Bonner, Bishop of London, imprisoned in this reign

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF EDWARD VI.

1547. Edward VI. becomes King of England. Catharine Parr marries Sir Thomas Seymour.

The Earl of Hertford made Duke of Somerset and Lord Protector.

Francis I., King of France, dies.

John Knox preaches in Scotland.

Battle of Pinkie Cleugh.

1548. The Queen of Scots affianced to the Dauphin.

The orange tree imported from China into Portugal.

1548. The French land in Scotland.

1549. The Book of Common Prayer adopted. Gardiner and Bonner sent to the Tower. Francis Xavier, the great French missionary, goes to Japan.

1551. The Duke of Somerset tried and condemned.

Shrewsbury School founded.

1552. The Duke of Somerset executed.

1553. Parliament fixes the succession on Lady Jane Grey.

Edward VI. dies.

Lord Protector Somerset.

- "*THIRD CITIZEN.* Woe to the land that's governed by a child!
FIRST CITIZEN. So stood the State, when Henry the Sixth
 Was crowned in Paris but at nine months old.
THIRD CITIZEN. Stood the State so? No; no, good friends, God wot:
 For then this land was famously enrich'd
 With politic grave counsel: then the King
 Had virtuous uncles to protect his grace.
FIRST CITIZEN. Why, so hath this, both by his father and mother.
THIRD CITIZEN. Better it were, they all came by his father."

Shakespeare: "King Richard III."

WE now begin the story of the reign of **Edward VI.**⁽⁶³⁾ It was a short reign, lasting only six years, but it has an important place in the history of England. In order to understand the events which took place in these six years, we must go back a little and recall what we know about the new king. Of all Henry VIII.'s six wives, the one whom he had probably loved the best was Jane Seymour; and one of the reasons why Henry loved the memory of Jane so much was because she was the mother of his only son.

It was this son, who was born on the 12th October, 1537, who now became King of England at the age of eight years. It must not be forgotten that though Henry had only one son he had *two daughters*, **Mary**, the daughter of **Catharine of Aragon**, and **Elizabeth**, daughter of **Anne Boleyn**. But though Mary and Elizabeth were both older than their brother Edward, Edward came to the throne before either of them, according to the law of England, which always gave the sons the right to succeed before the daughters.

Jane Seymour was dead, but she had many relations who were still alive. We shall see that these relations played a very important part in the reign of the new king. In order to show his affection for his wife, Henry had given great rewards to her relations, and had placed them in high offices. Her eldest brother, **Edward Seymour**, was made *Earl of Hertford*; another relation, **Sir John Russell**, was made *Lord Russell*; while a third was made *High Admiral of England*. Now it so happened that though Jane Seymour was not a Protestant herself, most of her relations belonged to the Protestant party. Among these, **Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford**, was the most powerful.

As the young king was quite a child, it was clear that for some

years at least he would have to be guided and advised by others. It was soon seen that the Earl of Hertford had made up his mind that he would become the chief adviser to his little nephew. He persuaded the king's Council to declare him to be Lord Protector of the king, and to bestow upon him in the name of the king the title of *Duke of Somerset*. It is under the name of the **Duke of Somerset** that we hear about Edward Seymour during King Edward's reign.



EDWARD VI.
(From the portrait by Holbein.)

King Edward had been brought up as a Protestant; and as the Duke of Somerset, who now really ruled the kingdom in the king's name, was also a Protestant, the Reformers in England began to hope that their cause would win the day. Nor were they disappointed, for it was during the reign of Edward VI. that the Reformed Church really took the place of the Roman Catholic Church in England.

But the first work which occupied the Protector was the work of war. It had been agreed that poor little King Edward should marry **Mary Stuart**, of Scotland, and though the king was only nine years old, and Mary only four, Somerset called upon the King of Scotland to fulfil the promise which

had been made, and to send Mary to England.

The party which was at that time most powerful in Scotland was the Roman Catholic party, and the Roman Catholics had no love for Somerset and his Protestant friends, and did not at all want to see the Queen of Scotland married to a Protestant king. They therefore refused point blank to do what Somerset asked. The refusal led to war; an English army again crossed the Border, and defeated the Scots at **Pinkie Cleugh** (1547), near Edinburgh.

But little came of the victory. Somerset had no sooner gained

the battle than he came back in haste to London, fearing lest in his absence his enemies there might do him some mischief. It was an odd way to try and win a bride, by sending an army into her country, and killing some hundreds of her best soldiers; and it is not wonderful that Somerset did not succeed in winning Mary of Scotland for his young master. Indeed, he might almost have foreseen what really took place.

The Scots were determined that their young and beautiful queen should not marry the King of England, and they rightly thought that the best way to protect her from any further claims was to marry her to somebody else. Accordingly, just a year after the battle of Pinkie Cleugh, Mary was betrothed, not to King Edward, but to King Edward's enemy, **Francis**, *Dauphin*¹ of France, who afterwards became King Francis II. of France.

As soon as Somerset, the Lord Protector, got back to London, he set to work to strengthen his own power. As was usual in those days, he thought the best way to begin was by getting rid of those who were likely to become his enemies or his rivals. He brought a charge of treason against his own brother, Thomas Seymour, Admiral of England. Parliament, as usual, was ready to help, and Thomas was condemned by the House of Commons, unheard and without trial, and beheaded.

Still further to strengthen his own power, Somerset now sought to marry the **Princess Mary**, the elder sister of the king; and when he found this was impossible, he sought the hand of her sister **Elizabeth**; but in this also he was unsuccessful.

The Fall of Somerset and the Rise of Northumberland.

"He has gambled for his life, and lost: he hangs."

Tennyson: "Queen Mary."

It soon became clear that, after all Somerset had done to gain power for himself, and to weaken his enemies, he was still in great danger. Many of the nobles hated him, and were jealous of him. Those who were the friends of the old Church looked upon him as their chief enemy.

In many parts of the country the breaking-up of the monasteries

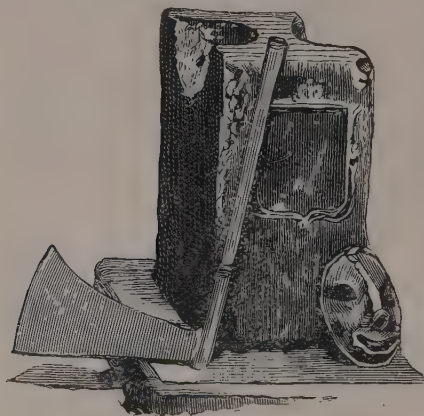
¹ The eldest son of the King of France was always called the *Dauphin*, just as the eldest son of the King or Queen of England is always called the *Prince of Wales*.

had caused great discontent, for the people who had been accustomed to receive charity from the monks, and who had found in the monasteries their only teachers, were very angry with the Reformers. In some of the counties the people rose in rebellion, as they had done before in Henry VIII.'s time, and Somerset found much difficulty in putting them down and in restoring quiet.

It was not wonderful that when he found that the friends of the monks were everywhere his enemies, Somerset should have done all he could to help and strengthen the Protestants, who were his friends. In doing this he found a ready helper in the king, who had been

brought up as a Protestant, and who was now getting old enough to take some part himself in settling what should be done.

The king's council was made up of warm friends of the Reformation, who lost no time in helping on the cause which they cared so much about. The bishops who would not admit that the king was the true Head of the Church in England were turned out. Two of them—**Gardiner**, Bishop of Winchester, and **Bonner**, Bishop of London—were put into



THE BLOCK, THE HEADSMAN'S AXE, AND MASK.

prison, and Protestant bishops were put in their places.

A new Protestant **Prayer-Book**, written in English, was drawn up and ordered to be used in all churches, and Protestant schools were started in many places with the help of the money that had been taken from the monasteries. In all these things Somerset, as a member of the council, took a chief part. But the time had at last come when he was to fall from power, as so many others had done before him.

Among the bitterest enemies of Somerset was **Dudley, Earl of Warwick**. Warwick had led the king's troops against the rebels, and had been very successful in beating them and in restoring peace. He used his power to attack Somerset. First of all, he accused him of having kept for himself the money which had been

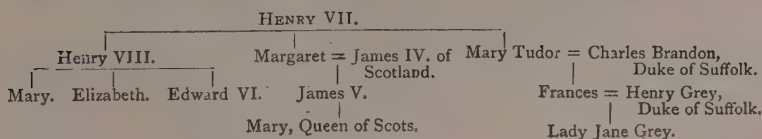
taken from the monasteries, or which had been paid in fines by the nobles who had risen in rebellion against the king, and had been punished for their disloyalty. This money, said Warwick and his friends, belonged to the king, and to the king's treasury, but Somerset had dishonestly kept it, and spent it on himself.

So many people had lost their money and were lamenting over its loss, that it was easy enough to find plenty who were ready to join in the cry against the Lord Protector. Then Warwick brought another charge. He said that Somerset had agreed to a disgraceful peace with the King of France, and that he had given up the King of England's rights to those parts of France which he still claimed.

At last Warwick felt strong enough to do what he had long wanted to do, namely, to get rid of Somerset altogether, and to take his place as chief councillor of the young king. He persuaded Edward to make him *Duke of Northumberland*; and having collected a number of friends who, like himself, hated Somerset, he openly charged the Protector with high treason. Somerset was taken prisoner, was tried, and, after a short delay, was executed on Tower Hill on the 22nd January, 1552.

The **Duke of Northumberland** now became the most powerful man in England, and it seemed that he had at last got all he hoped for, namely, the power to use the name of King Edward for his own purposes. The first use he made of his power was to marry his son, **Lord Guilford Dudley**, to the **Lady Jane Grey**. Farther on we shall read the sorrowful story of poor Lady Jane Grey, who for a few short hours was Queen of England.

But to understand the story rightly we must find out who Lady Jane Grey was, and why the Duke of Northumberland was so anxious that she should become the wife of his son. The easiest way to understand who Lady Jane was, is to look at the table which is given on this page. With a little patience we shall be able to trace out her family, and to see exactly what relation she was to the Royal Family of England. We shall see that she was the *great-niece* of **Henry VIII.**, and the *grand-daughter* of his sister **Mary** and the young **Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk**, about whom we read in Chapter XXXVI.



The reason why Northumberland wanted his son to marry Jane was a very plain one. Parliament had declared that neither Mary nor Elizabeth, the two daughters of Henry VIII., had any right to come to the throne; and if they did not there would only be one other person when King Edward died who would have a better right than Lady Jane Grey to come to the throne as Queen of England. This one person was **Mary, Queen of Scots**; but nobody believed that Mary, Queen of Scots, would be allowed to become Queen of England. Northumberland, therefore, hoped to see his son become the husband of one who would be queen as soon as King Edward was dead.

And it was already plain to all that in a very few months King Edward would be dead. The poor boy had always been weak and ailing. Scarcely able to walk, he liked to be carried to the window to see what was passing in the world outside. In the Council Chamber he sat on the throne supported by cushions, an unhappy sufferer, weak and in pain. In the year 1553 he was taken ill with measles, and later in the same year he had small-pox also. He caught cold, and before long the cold went to his lungs, and he got consumption.

Northumberland saw that the king was dying, and he saw too that if he were to make any use of the king's name before he died, he must do so at once. He persuaded the dying king to make a will in which he declared that the Lady Jane was the true heir to the throne. This was Edward's last act. On the 6th July, 1553, the poor king died, in the seventh year of his reign.

The reign of Edward VI. was a short one, but the king himself, unlike his father, was not the chief person in the history of his time. But the reign was a very important one in English history—so important, indeed, that before going on to the next reign it is necessary to say a little more about the great change which had taken place in England while Edward was on the throne. It is impossible to understand the story of the next reign unless we also understand quite clearly what had gone before it.



CHAPTER XLI.

WHAT THE REFORMATION MEANT

The "Old Religion" and the "New."

"The Bishop of Rome¹ hath no jurisdiction in this realm of England."

—From one of the "Articles" or Rules of the Church of England agreed to in Queen Elizabeth's time.

It is not possible to tell the story of these times without speaking very often about **The Reformation**, the **New Religion**, and the **Protestants**. It will be a good thing, therefore, to explain in a short way, before we go on any further, what is meant by these words, and what the Reformation and the New Religion were.

We have already read something about the Reformation which was begun by Martin Luther in Germany, and which, in Edward VI.'s time, had spread to England. The *New Religion* was the religion of those who had followed the teachings of Luther and of his friends, and both in England and in Germany the followers of the *New Religion* were called **Protestants** or **Reformers**.

But when we read of the *New Religion* we must not suppose that the religion of the Protestants was really a new one. It was the Christian religion in which the people of England had believed since the time when St. Augustine first began to preach at Canterbury, 900 years before the reign of Henry VIII. It was the Christian religion which had been taught ever since the time of Christ, 1,500 years before.

The difference between the **Reformers**, on the one side, and the **friends of the Pope**, on the other, was not as to whether the Christian religion should or should not be the religion of England, but as to whether the way in which the Christian religion was then taught and practised by the Pope, the priests, and those who agreed with the Pope, were the right and true way or not.

There is not room in this book to set down all the matters about which the two parties could not agree, nor, indeed, is it necessary to do so, for some of the things about which people differed greatly at that time are not very important now. But no one can understand the history of England during the time of Henry VIII., Edward VI.,

¹ The Bishop of Rome here means the Pope.

Mary, and Elizabeth, who does not know what were the most important things about which Protestants and Roman Catholics disagreed.

At that time the **Pope of Rome** claimed to have the right to interfere in the affairs of all the countries of Europe. He said that he was *Head of the Church* in **France**, in **Germany**, and in **England**, and that he alone had the right to say how the Church should be governed in each of those countries. He did not say that he had the right to make or alter the laws of England, but he did say that those who belonged in any way to the Church were not under the laws of England, but under the laws of the Church, and that the king's judges and the king's courts had no power and no right to judge them if they were accused of doing wrong.

The Pope also declared that many offences could only be punished by the Church, and that the person who committed these offences must be tried by the bishops, and not by the king's judges. He also said that no bishop could be appointed in England without his leave.

Sometimes it had happened in the past that there had been a quarrel between the Pope and the King of England, and then the Pope, in order to punish the king, had forbidden the clergy in England to hold services in the churches, and had commanded them not to bury or to baptise people.

Thus, though the Pope lived far away in the city of Rome, in Italy, he really had the power to interfere with the people of England, and to do them harm when he wished. The kings of England had always very much disliked any interference by the Pope, and the people of England had generally been on the side of the King of England when the king tried to get rid of the right of the Pope to meddle in the affairs of their country.

The Reformers now said that the Pope ought no longer to be the Head of the Church in England, and that he ought to have no power to interfere with Englishmen, or to punish them for what they did, or what they said, or what they thought.

The **Reformers**, therefore, believed that the Pope *had no authority in England*. The **Roman Catholics** believed that the Pope *had, and ought to have, authority in this country in many matters*. This, then, was one great difference between the two parties.

Freedom of Opinion and Liberty of Conscience.

"It is a thing plainly repugnant¹ to the Word of God, and the custom of the Primitive Church,² to have publick Prayer in the Church, or to minister the Sacraments, in a tongue not understood of the people."—One of the "Articles" or Rules of the Church of England agreed to in Queen Elizabeth's time.

But there was a much more important difference than this. For many years the Popes had claimed the right not only to judge men for what they did, but for what they thought. They said that there was only one true form of the Christian religion, and that was the form which was taught by the Pope, the bishops, and the priests. No man, they said, had a right to choose the form of his religion for himself, and a man committed a sin if he did not believe exactly what the Church taught him.

The Protestants, on the other hand, said that neither the Pope nor the bishops had any right to say what a man or a woman should believe. They said that every man ought to think for himself, and to try and find out for himself what was right and true. They said that the true religion was to be found in the Bible, and that the teaching of the priests was not the teaching of the Bible.

The Roman Catholics declared that the Pope and the bishops were the only persons who had a right to say what was the true meaning of the Bible, or to decide what was right and wrong. The Protestants, on the other hand, said that a man must read the Bible for himself, and must understand it by the help of his own conscience. And thus we see there was another great difference between the Protestants and the Roman Catholics, for while the Roman Catholics said that the Pope and the Church were the only true judges of what was right and wrong, the Protestants held that each man had a right to judge for himself, with the help of the Bible and of his own conscience.

The Roman Catholics had always been forbidden by the Pope to translate the Bible into English, or to read it for themselves. Both the Bible and the prayers which were read in the churches were in Latin, and few people except the priests could understand them. The Protestants declared that the words of the Bible were meant for everybody to read and understand, and that, therefore, the Bible

¹ "Repugnant to"—Contrary to.

² "Primitive Church"—The Early Church in the first centuries after the death of Christ.

ought to be translated into a language which would be understood by the people. One of the first things the Protestants did when they got the power was to translate into English both the Bible and the prayers which were used in the churches, so that everybody might read and understand them.

It must not, however, be supposed that the Protestants believed they needed no help to guide them, and that they were able by themselves to know what was right, or to do what was right. All true Protestants believed that it was only by prayer to God that they could be guided aright, and be enabled to do what was right. The difference between them and the Roman Catholics in this matter was that the Protestants believed that the guidance and help of God would be given to every man, woman, and child who truly sought for it, and that it was not necessary to go to a priest, to a bishop, or to the Pope in order to learn what was God's will.

It was the Protestants who first claimed and won for us two great liberties which all Englishmen now enjoy, namely, Freedom of Opinion, that is the right to think what we please; and Liberty of Conscience, that is the right to believe what we think right. We shall see that the Protestants in their turn often refused to others the liberties they had gained for themselves. Nevertheless no one can doubt, that despite their mistakes, we owe much to those Protestants who fought and suffered for freedom of thought in Queen Mary's time.



CHAPTER XLII.

MARY.

1553-1558.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF QUEEN MARY.

Mary, Queen of England, daughter of Henry VIII. and Catharine of Aragon, b. 1516, became Queen 1553, d. 1558.

Philip of Spain, husband of Mary.

Elizabeth, sister of Mary, afterwards Queen of England.

Lady Jane Grey, daughter of the Duke of Suffolk, great-granddaughter of Henry VII., executed 1554.

Lord Guilford Dudley, husband of Lady Jane Grey, executed 1554.

John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, father of Guilford Dudley, executed 1553.

Henry II., King of France.

Francis, son of Henry II., Dauphin of France, husband of Mary, Queen of Scots.

Mary, Queen of Scots, m. Francis II. 1558.

Charles I., King of Spain, also known as the Emperor **Charles V.**, abdicated 1556, d. 1558.

Philip II., King of Spain 1556, husband of Mary.

Ferdinand I., Emperor 1556.

Julius III., Pope, d. 1555.

Paul IV., Pope, d. 1555.

Stephen Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, Mary's chief minister, d. 1555.

Edmund Bonner, Bishop of London.

Thomas Cranmer, Protestant Archbishop of Canterbury, burned 1556.

Hugh Latimer, Protestant Bishop of Worcester, burned 1555.

Nicholas Ridley, Protestant Bishop of London, burned 1555.

John Hooper, Protestant Bishop of Gloucester, burned 1555.

The Duke of Guise, French General, took Calais, 1558.

Sir Thomas Wyatt, leader of "Wyatt's Rebellion," executed 1554.

John Knox, the great Scottish Reformer.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF QUEEN MARY.

1553. Northumberland claims the Crown on behalf of Lady Jane Grey.

Mary claims the Crown.

Northumberland executed.

Parliament repeals statutes of Edward VI.

Counsellor discovers a passage round the North Cape.

Edmund Spenser, the poet, born.

Christ's Hospital founded.

1554. Wyatt's Rebellion.

Lady Jane Grey executed.

Mary marries Philip of Spain.

England reconciled to the Pope.

1554. Philip forbidden to exercise any authority in England.

1555. Ridley and Latimer burned.

Bishop Gardiner dies.

1556. Cranmer burned.

The Emperor Charles resigns Spain and its dependencies to Philip.

1557. Russian ambassadors conclude a treaty in London.

Bonner's persecution.

1558. Mary, Queen of Scots marries the Dauphin of France.

Loss of Calais.

Mary dies.

Queen Jane.

"Seventeen—a rose of grace!

Girl never breathed to rival such a rose:

Rose never blew that equall'd such a bud,"

Tennyson: "Queen Mary."

No sooner was King Edward dead than there arose confusion and conflict throughout the country. There were two great parties in the land, each longing for power. On the one side were the **Protestants**, the friends of the *New Religion*, under the leadership of the **Duke of Northumberland**. On the other side were the friends of the *Old Religion*, whose hopes were fixed upon **Princess Mary**,⁽⁶¹⁾ the daughter of Henry VIII. and Catharine of Aragon.

Northumberland wished to be first in the field, and to force people to take his side before the friends of Mary had had time to collect. He called the Council together, and proclaimed that the true and rightful heir to the throne was his daughter-in-law, the **Lady Jane Grey**.⁽⁷²⁾ At the same time orders were given that Mary should be taken prisoner. But Mary was too quick for the duke. A friend brought

her word of what was going on in the Council. Without a moment's delay, she rode off to her friends in Norfolk, and thence to Framlingham, a strongly fortified house in Suffolk, where she knew she was safe from surprise.

If we look at the table on page 331, we shall see in a minute who Lady Jane Grey was and what claim she had to the crown of England. She was the great-granddaughter of Henry VII. and the daughter of



LADY JANE GREY.

the Duke of Suffolk. By right of descent, Mary had a better claim to the throne than Lady Jane Grey, and so also had Elizabeth, but both Mary and Elizabeth had been declared by Parliament to be deprived of their rights. Mary, too, was a friend of the Old Religion, and Northumberland hoped that the people would support him and Lady Jane Grey, who was a Protestant, against Mary. We shall see that he was mistaken. If we look again at the table on p. 331, we shall see that there was another person who had a better claim to the crown than Lady Jane

Grey, and that was Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots. But it was not till after the death of Queen Mary of England that Mary, Queen of Scots put forward her claim to the throne.

Meanwhile the Duke of Northumberland had proclaimed **Lady Jane Grey** to be *Queen of England* at St. Paul's Cross, in London. When the name of **Queen Jane** was read out by the herald, it was received in silence; nobody cheered or cried "God save the Queen." An ostler boy in the crowd alone raised a cry against the new queen. He was seized by the guards, and his ears were nailed to the pillory. No one interfered on his behalf, but it was plain that Queen Jane had few friends.

The truth was that the people of London, and the greater part of the people of England also, had no love at all for Northumberland, nor did they care very much about the New Religion which he supported. As long as King Edward had been on the throne and had chosen to support the Protestants, the people kept pretty quiet; it was only those who had been injured by the breaking-up of the monasteries who rose in rebellion. But now that they were asked to fight for the New Religion, with Northumberland as their leader, and against Mary, whom they looked upon as the true heir to the crown, the people of England soon made up their minds what they would do.

For it is quite plain that though in the time of Henry VIII. Parliament had declared that neither Mary nor Elizabeth had any right to come to the throne, most people in England paid no attention at all to what Parliament had decided about the matter, and everybody except a few friends and supporters of the Duke of Northumberland looked upon Mary as the only right and proper person to be queen.

It was true that Mary belonged to the Old Religion, and that by this time the new Protestant religion had spread very widely through the country; but the time had not yet come when Englishmen were ready, from one end of England to the other, to fight and die for the Protestant religion. We shall see later on that such a time did come, and we shall see, too, that no one did more to make the English people Protestants, and fierce enemies of the Pope and his friends, than Queen Mary herself, whom nearly all England was now ready to welcome as queen.

But before we go on to the reign of Queen Mary, we must give a little space to the short sad reign of a queen whose name is not to be found in the list of the Kings and Queens of England.

The Death of Lady Jane Grey

Live still to die, that by death you may purchase eternal life."

Lady Jane Grey.

Little is left to mark the sad history of poor Queen Jane. But Jane herself was such a sweet and good woman that we must not altogether forget her or the part which she played in the history of our country. She was but seventeen years old in the year which led her to the crown and to her death.

In these few years she had learnt much. She was a wonder of learning, even at a time when young ladies of high rank were often great scholars. She knew and could read Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, and could write both of the two last-named languages. But this was not all nor the best that could be said of Lady Jane Grey. She had learnt to be a true Christian. Everything that is told of her makes us love her as a pure-hearted, brave, and good Englishwoman.

But neither Jane's goodness nor her learning was enough to protect her. She was indeed only an instrument in the hands of other persons, who hoped to use her for their own ends, and what she suffered she suffered for their crimes and not for her own. Northumberland soon saw that if he were going to keep Mary from the throne he must do something at once, for every day it became clearer that the people were in favour of Mary and against him.

He set off with a small army to attack Mary in Suffolk. He hoped that many friends would come and join him, but none came. On the contrary, from all sides the lords and gentlemen of the eastern counties came forward to fight for the true queen.

The duke soon saw that his cause was lost. He gave himself up, and acknowledged Mary as the rightful queen. His cowardice, however, did not save him. He was sent to the Tower, and was there beheaded on August 22nd, 1553. He died hated by both parties, for in the hope of saving his life he declared that he was no longer a Protestant, but a believer in the old religion. Thus, after ruining his Protestant friends, he deserted them as soon as he felt his own life in danger. It is not wonderful that while his enemies despised him, those who had been his friends hated him.

Lady Jane Grey and her husband, **Lord Guilford Dudley**, were both imprisoned in the Tower. At first it seemed as if their lives would be spared; and perhaps they might have been allowed to live if it had not been that a rising among the Protestants took place in the county of Kent, under Sir Thomas Wyatt, and that those who took part in it declared that they were fighting for Queen Jane. Alarmed at this new danger, Mary and her councillors decided that Jane should be put to death.

A priest was sent by the order of Queen Mary to try to win Lady Jane to the Roman Catholic religion. Lady Jane treated the priest, who was an old man, with courtesy and kindness, but she said that she did not wish to hear him, that her mind was made up, and that she wished to die as she had lived, in the Protestant faith. She was sure of her own courage, but she was not so sure about that of others who were dear to her. She wrote and begged her husband



LADY JANE GREY ON HER WAY TO THE SCAFFOLD.

not to follow the bad example which had been set him by the Duke of Northumberland and not to forsake his religion under the fear of death.

Her sweetness won the heart even of her gaolers. To Sir John Brydges, the Governor of the Tower, she gave a small book of English prayers. The book can still be seen. Sir John asked his prisoner to write a few words in it. These are the words which Queen Jane wrote:—

"Forasmuch as you have desired so simple a woman to write in so worthy a book, good master lieutenant, therefore I shall as a friend desire you, and as a Christian require you, to call upon God and incline your heart to His laws, to quicken you in His way, and not to take the truth utterly out of your mouth. Live still to die, that by death you may purchase eternal life." Her husband, Guilford Dudley, was to be executed before her. She was asked if she would like to see him. She said, No: if it would profit either of them she would see him; otherwise she would wait for her death alone.

When she came to the foot of the scaffold, she sprang up the steps, and said that she had broken the law in accepting the crown; but as to any guilt of intention she wrung her hands, and said she washed them clean of it in innocency before God and man. She "died a true Christian woman."

This is how the rest of the story is told in the Chronicle of Queen Mary:—

"The hangman kneeled down and asked her forgiveness, which she forgave most willingly. Then he willed her to stand upon the straw, which doing, she saw the block. Then she said, 'I pray you despatch me quickly.' Then she kneeled down, saying, 'Will you take it off before I lay me down?' and the hangman answered, 'No, madam.' She tied a kercher about her eyes; then feeling for the block, she said, 'What shall I do? where is it?' One of the by-standers guiding her thereunto, she laid down her head upon the block, and stretched forth her body, and said, 'Lord, into Thy hands I commend my spirit.' And so ended."

"In Time of Persecution."

"The blood of martyrs is the seed of the Church."

The rising which had taken place, and which led to the death of Lady Jane Grey, was put down after some difficulty. The rebels, under Sir Thomas Wyatt, got as far as London, and actually reached the walls of the city. Wyatt hoped that the Londoners would rise to help



QUEEN MARY.

(From a painting by Lucas D'Heere, in the possession of the Society of Antiquaries.)

him, but in this he was disappointed. The Londoners were true to the queen, and Wyatt was taken prisoner and executed (1554).

But though Wyatt had not succeeded, the causes which had led him and his friends to take up arms were very serious, and were soon felt to be serious not only in the county of Kent but throughout the whole of England. We have seen that the people of England were not at this time ready to fight for or against the old religion or the new. Indeed, they were for the most part content to let their kings and queens settle what should be the religion of the country very much as they pleased. The only thing which they wanted was not to be too much interfered with themselves.

But although the greater part of the people of England were at this time content to accept what the king or queen might choose, there were on both sides men who were not at all of this way of thinking, and who were determined, whatever it might cost, to win a victory for their own party. On both sides there were men and women who believed that the religion to which they belonged was the only true one, and that those who did not agree with them were not only in the wrong, but were wicked people who ought to be put down for the good of the country and for the sake of true religion.

On the one side, the Reformers never ceased to teach and to preach the reformed doctrines, and to attack the Pope and the Pope's party. On the other side, the friends of the Pope and of the old religion were as earnest in teaching and preaching what they believed to be right, and in declaring that nothing could be worse or more wicked than to listen to or believe in the new doctrines.

On both sides there were men and women who were ready to give up their own lives readily for the sake of what they believed to be right; and, alas! there were also men and women on both sides equally ready to take the lives of others who did not agree with them, in the vain hope that by persecution they could make men change their views and give up what they believed to be right.

Happily, we understand much more clearly nowadays than men did in the reign of Queen Mary, that the very worst way to make people give up their opinions about what they believe to be right, and their duty, is to persecute them and to make them suffer. We have learnt that persecution is much more likely to make people — especially English people — cling to what they think than to make them give up their opinions.

We have learnt, too, that the very sight of men and women suffering for saying and thinking what they honestly believe to be right, often makes people sorry for those who suffer and angry with those who

cause the suffering. In this way it often happens that persecution, instead of stopping men from teaching and thinking as they please, brings them friends whom they would never have had if they had been left alone, and makes men sorry for them who would have taken no notice of them if they had not been persecuted.

The Spanish Marriage.

"If this man marry our queen, he will be king, King of England, my masters; and the queen, and the laws, and the people, his slaves. What? shall we have Spain on the throne and in the Parliament; Spain in the pulpit and on the law-bench; Spain in all the great offices of State; Spain in our ships, in our forts, in our houses?"—Tennyson: "Queen Mary."

The causes which had led to the rebellion of the Kentish men under Sir Thomas Wyatt were twofold, and it is necessary to understand what they were, because they were the same causes which led to many other troubles during Queen Mary's reign.

It must be remembered that Mary was the first queen who had ever reigned of her own right over England, and when she became the sovereign of the country, a difficulty arose which had never arisen before. It had been easy to find a wife for the King of England, for though the king's wife was always called *The Queen*, she had no power in the government of the country. It did not matter whether she were a foreigner like Catharine of Aragon, or an Englishwoman like Jane Seymour.

But now a very different question arose. The sovereign of the country was a woman, and it was necessary to find a husband for her. Who was the queen's husband to be, and what power was he to have over the government of the country? Was he to be called *The King*? And if so, was he to rule England as King Henry or King Edward had ruled it? Was he to be a foreigner or an Englishman?

Whichever he might be, it seemed as if there would be danger, for if he were a foreigner there was no knowing what power he might not get over the queen, power which he would very likely use for the good of a foreign country, and not for the good of England. On the other



A SHILLING OF PHILIP
AND MARY.

"For ever amorous and billing,
Like Philip, and Mary on a
shilling."

BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER.

hand, if he were an Englishman, he must be chosen from among the queen's subjects, and then it was certain that there would be jealousy and strife among all the great nobles in the country when they saw one of their number picked out and made a king over them.

While the people of England were puzzling over this difficult question, Queen Mary herself settled it without asking anybody's advice, and settled it in what was perhaps the worst way in which it could

have been settled; the worst for herself and the worst for her country. It is not strange that the queen should feel that the choosing of a husband was her own affair, for no woman in the world likes to have her husband chosen for her.

But it is one of the disadvantages of being a king or a queen that in matters like this a great many other people are concerned besides the bride and bridegroom. The person whom Mary chose for her husband was **Philip of Spain**, son of the Emperor Charles V. It was not wonderful that she should wish to marry Philip.



PHILIP II.

It must not be forgotten that her own mother, Catharine, had been a Spaniard, and that Mary had received far more kindness from her Spanish relations than from her English relations. Philip would shortly become King of Spain, and, moreover, the King of Spain was one of the greatest Roman Catholic sovereigns in Europe, a friend of the Pope, and of the old religion in which Mary believed so firmly, and in which she had been brought up.

But the very things which made Mary welcome Philip as a husband

made the English people detest him. In the first place he was a *foreigner*, and the English did not like foreigners, or wish them to have any power in England. In the second place, Philip was a *Spaniard*, and the Spaniards were particularly disliked in England.

Already the English merchants and adventurers had begun to come to blows with the Spaniards in America and in other parts of the world, and already they were beginning to dispute with them the possession of some of the rich territory of the newly-discovered countries. And more than this, the Spaniards had already begun that persecution of the Protestants which afterwards made them so justly hated by Reformers in all parts of Europe. English people feared that the new king would not be long in setting up in this country the cruel court which was known in Spain as **The Holy Inquisition**.

This **Court of the Inquisition** was made up of bishops and priests acting under the direction of the Pope, and its business was to try people for their opinions, and to see whether they believed what the Pope declared to be the only true opinions. Those who were found guilty by the Inquisition were often punished in the most cruel way, and were frequently tortured to make them confess what their judges wanted them to confess.

We shall see that Englishmen were right in fearing that Philip would try and bring into England the plan which he had adopted in Spain. It was not wonderful that, having this fear in their minds, they should have disliked the queen's choice of a husband. But the marriage of Queen Mary with Philip of Spain was not the only thing which had stirred up those who joined in Wyatt's rebellion, and which had made many other Englishmen who had not joined in the rebellion angry and discontented.

The Oxford Martyrs.

"Be of good comfort, Master Ridley, and play the man; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out."—*Bishop Latimer at the Stake.*

When Mary first came to the throne it was clear to everyone that she intended to bring back the Old Religion in which she had been brought up, and to which she was so much attached. It seemed a natural thing that just as Edward VI., or rather those who advised Edward VI., had dismissed the bishops who refused to admit that the king

was the true head of the Church, and had replaced them by men like **Cranmer**, so Mary should now turn out Cranmer and Latimer, and put back **Gardiner** and **Bonner** in their places.

If no more than this had been done, perhaps the Protestants would have remained quiet. But it soon became plain that Mary meant to go much further, and not only to set up the Old Religion again, but to make everybody admit that the Old Religion was the only true religion.

On the 25th July, 1554, **Mary** was married to **Philip** at Winchester. It was decided that Philip was to be called *king*, but that he was to have no right to interfere with the making of laws, or with the government of the country. The English people were wisely determined that if they were to have a foreign king, he should have no power to meddle with their concerns.

It soon became clear, however, that it was easier to say that the king should have no power than to prevent him from using the power which he got through being the queen's husband. Mary was very fond of Philip, much fonder than Philip was of her, and it soon became evident that what the king wished the queen was only too ready to command. It was plain, moreover, that the king and queen were of the same mind about one thing—and that was putting down the Protestants.

Parliament, which, as usual at this time, did pretty much what the king or queen happened to order, declared that the Pope was the only true head of the Church, that all that had been said and done to the contrary by Henry VIII. and Edward VI. was wrong and of no account, and that every man who refused to obey the new law might be put to death. The Protestant bishops and clergymen were turned out of their places, and **Cranmer**, the Archbishop of Canterbury; **Hooper**, Bishop of Gloucester; **Latimer**, Bishop of Worcester; and **Ridley**, Bishop of London, were thrown into prison.

Urged on by Philip, Mary gave orders that the cruel persecution which had begun in Spain should be continued in England. In many parts of England men and women who were known to be Protestants were brought before the Roman Catholic bishops for trial, and were asked by them if they would consent to give up their belief and go back to the Old Religion. Hundreds of brave men and women were found who declared that neither the fear of imprisonment nor of death would make them give up their religion, or say that they believed what in their hearts they thought to be false.

For such as these there was no mercy. No less than 280 persons

were burned to death in various parts of England for refusing to give up their religion.

Among those who thus died were the three bishops—**Latimer**, **Ridley**, and **Hooper**. **Hooper** was burned at Gloucester. **Latimer** and



THE MARTYRS' MEMORIAL, 'OXFORD.

Ridley at Oxford. These brave and good men met their death with a courage which did more for the cause of the Protestants than many sermons or many learned books could ever do. They met their judges and reasoned with them without fear, and sought neither mercy nor pardon.

Ridley was the first tried and condemned to death. Then Latimer, an old man of eighty, was brought before the judges. His appearance as he stood there before the men who he knew had made up their minds to condemn him to a cruel death is thus described:—"Latimer was then brought in—eighty years old now—dressed in an old threadbare gown of Bristol frieze, a handkerchief on his head with a nightcap over it, and over that again another cap, with two broad flaps buttoned under the chin. A leather belt was round his waist, to which a Testament was attached; his spectacles, without a case, hung from his neck."

It is well to try and picture to ourselves the brave old bishop, as he stood awaiting his sentence. Many other brave and good men died in the times about which we are reading, because they would not say what they believed to be untrue, and because they would not give up the religion which they loved. Among them were both Protestants and Roman Catholics. On whichever side they were, we cannot read of their sufferings without admiring them for their courage and their love of what they thought to be the truth. But among all who suffered, none better deserves to be remembered than this old man of eighty, in his threadbare gown of Bristol frieze, standing up boldly before his judges after two long, weary years in prison.

Indeed, the names of Latimer and Ridley have always lived in the memory of Englishmen; and if we who read about them now admire them, and feel sorry for them what must those Englishmen have thought who saw them die at the stake in Oxford?

It was on the 16th October, 1555, that the two bishops were burned. As the torch was put to the faggots, Latimer spoke, and the words which he spoke will always be remembered. "*Be of good comfort, Master Ridley,*" said the brave old bishop, "*and play the man; we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out.*"

Latimer's last words proved to be true. The persecution of those who died for their faith helped the people of England to understand how great a cause these men were fighting for. The right of men and women to think as they please, to worship God in what way they think right, and to believe what their own conscience tells them to be true, is now no longer disputed in our country. We owe much of the liberty which we enjoy to the men who first "lighted the candle" of which Latimer spoke, and who taught Englishmen that it was better for a man to die than to give up the right to do what his conscience told him was his duty.

In St. Giles', at Oxford, stands a tall monument. It is called the **Martyrs' Memorial**, and commemorates the burning of Latimer and Ridley, which took place close by, in Broad Street.

The Death of Cranmer.

"The spirit indeed is willing, but the flesh is weak."

Matt. xxvi. 41.

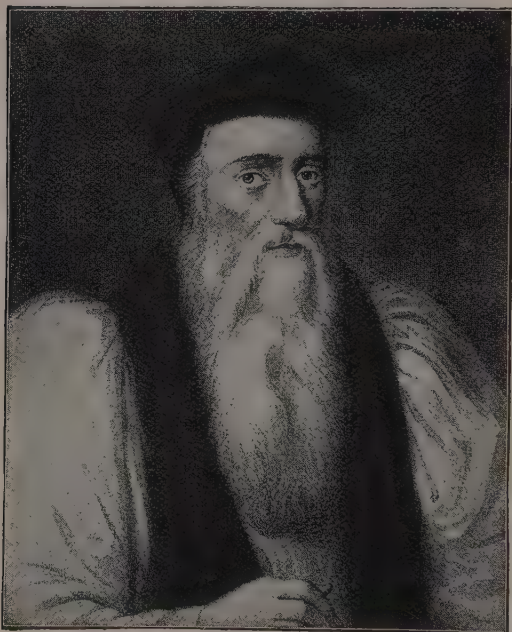
It was not till the next year (1556) that **Archbishop Cranmer** was put to death. The friends of the queen tried hard to get him to confess that he had been in the wrong, and that the Old Religion was, after all, the only true one. They hoped that he would do as Northumberland had done, and give up his opinions in the hope of saving his life. They felt sure that if the Archbishop of Canterbury, who had done so much to set up the Protestant Church, were to confess that he were in the wrong, and to beg for the queen's mercy, all those who had taken the side of the Reformers would feel that a great blow had been struck at their cause.

At first it seemed as if the queen's friends were going to get what they wanted. Wearied out by imprisonment, and with the fear of death before him, Cranmer consented to sign a paper in which he admitted that he had been in the wrong, and that the New Religion was a false one. But this did not save his life. Mary decided that he should be put to death, after all. Then when he saw that it was too late to hope for life, the archbishop's courage came back to him, and with it there came a feeling of shame that he had ever denied the truths which he had for so long taught to others.

When he was called upon to declare before all the people that he had given up the Protestant religion; and that he now believed all that was in the paper which he had signed, he said openly that he had not changed his opinion, that when he had signed the paper he had done so in fear of death and in the hope of saving his life; no other thing that he had ever done in his life troubled him so much as having written things which were contrary to the truth; the hand which had signed the paper had most offended, and therefore it should be the first to suffer in the flames. "*The Pope*," he said, "*I utterly refuse, with all his false doctrine.*" On the 21st March he was put to death. True to his word, he thrust his right hand, the hand which had signed the paper, first into the flames, where it was consumed.

All over the country many other Protestants, not so well known as Cranmer, Latimer and Ridley, but not less brave, were put to death because they would not admit that the Pope was head of the Church in England, and had the right to settle their religion for them.

That Mary really thought she was doing what was right, in persecuting and putting to death those who did not agree with her, is



ARCHBISHOP CRANMER.

quite certain. She truly believed that she was doing what was her duty as a queen and as a Christian woman; and however terrible and hateful we may think her actions to have been, we must not forget that they seemed very different to her than they do to us nowadays. But though Mary thought that it was right to persecute and burn the enemies of the Pope, the people of England, or at any rate the greater part of them, soon made up their minds that what she did was wrong and hateful.

Many of those who were of the same religion as the queen had no love either for the Pope, or for Philip the queen's Spanish husband, and they would much rather have seen their neighbours allowed to follow their own religion, as long as they did not interfere with others. Many who before had cared little about the New Religion, and had had little love for those who preached it, or for those who believed in it, began to take sides with the men whom they saw persecuted and ill-treated.

The Protestants themselves, from one end of England to the other, instead of being frightened by the persecution which the queen hoped would make them change their religion, became angry instead, and determined never to rest until they had got rid of a queen who had a Spanish husband, and who believed that the Pope had the right to interfere with the lives of the people of England.

The Loss of Calais.

*"Alas !
That gateway to the mainland over which
Our flag hath floated for two hundred years
Is France again."* Tennyson : *"Queen Mary."*

Before long Mary, who had begun her reign with the good wishes of by far the greater part of her subjects, came to be more and more disliked every year. Nor did the queen's troubles end with the hatred which followed the persecution of the Protestants. She had other matters which interfered with her happiness and peace of mind even more than the ill-will of her subjects. Her husband Philip had never loved her. He was eleven years younger than the queen, and he had been brought up to a very different sort of life from that which he was compelled to lead in England.

In Spain, Philip, as the son of the Emperor Charles, and as the future King of Spain, was a very great person, and everybody was anxious to please him. In England, on the other hand both nobles and common people hated him because he was a foreigner and because he was a Spaniard; the Protestants also hated him because he was their bitter enemy, and one of the strongest supporters of the Pope. Mary was very fond of her husband, but he did not return her affection; he cared little for her serious way of living, and he sought every opportunity of going away from her.

He soon had a good reason for leaving her. In the third year of Queen Mary's reign (1556), **Charles V.**, Philip's father, tired of ruling a great kingdom, gave up his crown, and went to live for the rest of his days in a monastery. **Philip** now became King of Spain, and he was glad to return once more to his own country, leaving Mary sorrowing over his absence. Only once did he come back to England, and then but for a short time.

But though he had left the country he was still able to do it harm. Spain was at war with France, and Philip called upon the Queen of England to help him in his quarrel. Mary joined in the war to please her husband, and against the wish of most of her subjects.

But it seemed as if nothing could prosper in this unhappy reign. The English troops took but little part in the war; they helped Philip in a battle fought at St. Quentin, in which the Spanish and English troops won a victory. But a very short time afterwards the fortune of the war turned, and England suffered a loss which seemed to those who were living at that time to be one of the most shameful that could befall the country.

The **Duke of Guise**, the French general, marched with a strong army against **Calais**, the last of the English possessions in France. After a short siege of a week the town surrendered (1558). Two hundred and eleven years before, Edward III. had taken it after a siege of eleven months. When all else was lost to England of the great possessions which she had once held in France, **Calais** remained; and now that it had been lost, all England felt that a great disgrace had overtaken the country. No one felt this more than the unhappy queen herself. It is said that when the news of the fall of Calais reached her she was overcome with grief. "When I die," she said, "you will find the word 'Calais' written upon my heart."

It was not wonderful that Englishmen at the time should mourn over the loss of the town which they had kept for so long, but there can be no doubt that it was really a very good thing, not only for France but for England, that the Duke of Guise succeeded in winning back the place.

There would never have been any lasting peace between England and France as long as Englishmen kept a part of the land of France. The French would always have been wanting to fight us whenever they got a chance, in order to get back their own land. Nor could we have blamed them if they had, for it is to be hoped that no Englishman would ever rest quiet if Frenchmen were to take, and try to keep, any piece of British land, however small or however distant.

But, as has been said, the people of England were very angry and very sad at the time, and they laid the blame for the loss of Calais upon Mary's Spanish husband, who had dragged England into a war in which she had no concern.

Deserted by her husband, disliked by her people, unsuccessful in war, Mary now felt that all her plans had failed. The Pope, whom



THE MARKET PLACE, CALAIS.

she had all her life done her best to serve, had taken the side of France against Spain, and therefore was her enemy. Philip, for whom she had offended her people, and for whose sake she had undertaken the unlucky war with France, had left her; and, worst of all, she now knew that she was dying, and that she would leave no child to come after her on the throne.

This would have been bad enough in itself, but it was made far worse when she remembered that the next heir to the throne was the daughter of Anne Boleyn, her sister **Elizabeth**, whom she hated, and who was the favourite of the Protestants whom she had so long fought against and persecuted.

On the 17th November, 1558, in the sixth year of her reign, **Queen Mary** died after a painful illness. She was forty-two years old when she died. Her reign, which began so hopefully for herself and her friends, ended in gloom and disappointment for all those who had taken her part or who wished her well. Few women have tried harder to do what they thought right than Queen Mary, and it would be unfair to forget this when we read the story of her reign, and of the cruel things that were done by her orders.

But the reign of Queen Mary has always been held to have been one of the most hateful and miserable in our history, and justly so. There were few in all England who felt any sorrow when the news came that the queen was dead. The people of England who had seen the cruel things that had been done among them, the burnings and the persecutions which had made the land wretched, spoke of her by the name by which she will always be remembered in English history.

CHAPTER XLIII.

ELIZABETH—THE PROTESTANT QUEEN.

1558-1603.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.

Elizabeth, Queen of England, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, b. 1533, became Queen 1558, d. 1603.

Henry II., King of France, d. 1559.

Francis II., King of France, son of Henry II., husband of Mary, Queen of Scots, d. 1560.

Charles IX., King of France, brother of Francis II., d. 1574.

Henry III., King of France, brother of Francis and Charles, a suitor of Elizabeth under the name of Duke of Anjou, murdered 1589.

Henry IV. (Henry of Navarre), King of France.

Philip II., King of Spain, brother-in-law of Elizabeth, d. 1598.

Philip III., son of Philip II., King of Spain.

Ferdinand I., Emperor, d. 1564.
Maximilian II., son of Ferdinand I., Emperor, d. 1576.
Rudolph II., son of Maximilian II., Emperor.
Mary, Queen of Scots, executed 1587.
James VI., King of Scotland, son of Mary, afterwards James I. of England and Scotland.
The Earl of Murray, Regent of Scotland, murdered 1570.
Paul IV., Pope, d. 1559.
Pius IV., Pope, d. 1566.
Pius V., Pope d. 1572.
Gregory XIII., Pope, d. 1585.
Sixtus V., Pope, died 1590.
Urban VII., Pope, d. 1591.
Gregory XIV., Pope, d. 1591.
Innocent IX., Pope, d. 1592.
Clement VIII., Pope.
Elizabeth's Chief Ministers:—
William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, b. 1520, d. 1598.
Sir Francis Walsingham, b. 1536, d. 1590.
Sir Nicholas Bacon, b. 1510, d. 1579.
Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, son of Lord Burleigh, b. 1550.
John Knox, Scottish Reformer, d. 1572.
Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, minister and favourite of the queen, d. 1588.
Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, minister and favourite of the queen, executed 1601.
Great Seamen and Soldiers:—
Sir Walter Raleigh, b. 1552.
Lord Howard of Effingham, Lord High Admiral of England, b. 1536.
Sir John Hawkins, b. 1520, d. 1596.
Sir Martin Frobisher, d. 1594.

John Davis.
Sir Francis Drake, b. 1545, d. 1596.
Sir Richard Grenville, b. 1540, d. 1591.

Sir Philip Sidney, b. 1554, killed at Zutphen, 1586.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert, b. 1539, d. 1584.

Great Writers:—

William Shakespeare, b. 1564, d. 1616.

Edmund Spenser, b. 1553, d. 1599.

Ben Jonson, b. 1574.

Francis Bacon, Viscount St. Albans, son of Nicholas Bacon, b. 1561.

Sir Philip Sidney, b. 1554, d. 1586.

Christopher Marlowe, d. 1593.

Richard Hooker, d. 1600.

Ralph Holinshed, the chronicler, d. 1581.

John Foxe, author of "The Book of Martyrs," d. 1587.

John Stow, author of "Stow's Chronicle," d. 1605.

John Fletcher, b. 1576.

Philip Massinger, b. 1583.

Francis Beaumont, b. 1584.

John Ford, b. 1586.

Great Painters:—

Michael Angelo, Florentine, d. 1564.

Titian, Venetian, d. 1576.

Tintoretto, Venetian, d. 1594.

Henry Darnley, m. Mary, Queen of Scots 1565, murdered 1567.

James, Earl of Bothwell m. Mary, Queen of Scots 1567, d. 1578.

William Lee, inventor of stocking-frames.

Sir Edward Coke, Chief Justice of England, the great lawyer, b. 1552.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.

1558. Elizabeth becomes Queen.
 Nicholas Bacon, Chancellor. Sir W. Cecil, Secretary of State.
 Elizabeth discontinues mass in favour of English service.
 1559. The Roman Catholic bishops refuse to officiate at the coronation.
 The Pope denies Elizabeth's right to the crown.
 A Protestant Parliament.
 Acts of Supremacy and Uniformity passed.
 Francis II., husband of Mary, Queen of Scots, becomes King of France.
 ✕ John Knox promotes the Reformation in Scotland.
 1560. Elizabeth sends a fleet to help the Scottish Reformers.
 Treaty of Edinburgh signed. The French commissioners agree that Mary shall renounce her claim to the throne of England.
 Mary and Francis refuse to recognise the surrender of the commissioners.
 Shan O'Neil's rebellion in Ireland.

- Westminster School founded.
 Francis II. of France dies. ✕
 1561. Mary goes to Scotland.
 Dudley becomes Elizabeth's favourite.
 Francis Bacon born.
 1562. Elizabeth has small-pox.
 Civil war in France.
 1563. A subsidy voted for troops in France.
 Elizabeth avoids settling the question of succession.
 1564. Rizzio becomes Mary's favourite.
 William Shakespeare born.
 The Puritans first begin to be heard of.
 Michael Angelo dies. Calvin dies.
 Mary marries Darnley.
 1566. Murder of Rizzio. ✕
 Parliament dissolved.
 1567. Murder of Darnley. ✕
 Mary marries Bothwell. Flight of Bothwell. ✕
 Mary captured at Carberry Hill. Reigns crown.
 The Earl of Murray, Regent of Scotland.

1567. The revolt of the Netherlands against Spain.
The Royal Exchange founded.
Rugby School founded.
- ✱ 1568. Escape of Mary from Loch Leven.
Arrested in England.
Alva's persecution in the Netherlands.
Mary removed from Bolton to Hampton Court, thence to Tutbury.
1569. Mary removed to Coventry.
Insurrection in the North, led by Westmoreland and Dacre.
1570. The Pope excommunicates Elizabeth, and commands her subjects not to obey her.
A man posting the Pope's bull in London is hanged.
The Regent Murray murdered.
1571. Parliament claims the right of free speech.
Mary's friends seize Edinburgh Castle.
Harrow School founded.
Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England adopted.
The battle of Lepanto. The Austrians under Don John defeat the Turkish fleet.
1572. The Duke of Norfolk executed.
Henry of Navarre marries Margaret of France.
Massacre of St. Bartholomew.
John Knox dies.
1573. Elizabeth supports the Netherlands.
Siege of La Rochelle.
The city of Manila, in the East Indies, built by the Spaniards.
1574. Charles IX. of France dies.
Ben Jonson, the great poet, born.
1575. The Netherlands offer sovereignty to Elizabeth.
The Prince of Orange appointed Stadtholder.
1576. Henry of Navarre becomes a Protestant.
The great painter Titian dies of Plague in Venice.
Martin Frobisher sails to discover the North-West passage.
Wentworth imprisoned for his speech in the House of Commons.
1577. Drake begins his voyage round the world.
1578. English auxiliaries assist the Dutch.
The Pope sends troops to assist the Roman Catholics in Ireland.
Norwegians try to interfere with English commerce. Elizabeth asserts right of free navigation.
Drake explores California.
Sir Humphrey Gilbert plants the colony of Virginia.
1579. The seven provinces of the Netherlands combine against the Spaniards.
Elizabeth enters into a treaty with the Sultan. The Turkey Company established.
1580. The Duke of Anjou offers marriage to Elizabeth.
Elizabeth imprisons Leicester.
Drake returns and is knighted
- The Papal and Spanish troops defeated in Ireland.
1581. Jesuit plots against Elizabeth.
The University of Edinburgh founded.
Ralph Holinshed, the chronicler, dies.
1582. Elizabeth dismisses her suitor the Duke of Anjou.
Correction of the calendar by Gregory XIII.
1583. Elizabeth claims sovereignty over Newfoundland.
James of Scotland escapes from confinement in England.
1584. Conspiracies against Elizabeth. A national association formed to defend her.
Second expedition to Virginia under Raleigh.
The Prince of Orange murdered.
Henry of Navarre becomes heir to the crown of France.
1585. The Earl of Leicester sent with troops to the United Provinces.
Drake and Frobisher attack the Spanish possessions in the West Indies.
Ambassadors from Japan received at Rome.
Condé with an English fleet relieves Rochelle.
Antwerp surrenders to the Spaniards.
Davis explores North-East America.
Coaches first used in England.
Cardinal Richelieu, afterwards the great French minister, b. Sept. 5.
1586. Battle of Zutphen. Death of Sir Philip Sidney.
1587. Mary, Queen of Scots beheaded.
Philip prepares to invade England.
Pope Sixtus issues a Bull and preaches a crusade against England.
Drake destroys the Spanish fleet at Cadiz.
1588. The Spanish Armada sails.
The Earl of Leicester dies.
The Armada destroyed.
1589. King James of Scotland marries Anne of Denmark.
Henry of Navarre takes title of King of France.
The stocking-frame invented.
1590. The first paper mill in England established at Dartford.
The Battle of Ivry.
1591. An English army under Essex sent to help Henry IV. of France.
Trinity College, Dublin, founded by Elizabeth.
1592. The Cathedral of St. Mark at Venice built.
1593. Wentworth imprisoned, and three other members of the House of Commons.
Henry IV. of France becomes a Roman Catholic.
Alliance between Elizabeth and Henry IV.
1594. Spanish attempts to murder Elizabeth.
Henry IV. enters Paris.
The Falkland Isles discovered.

1598. The Edict of Nantes, giving protection to the Protestants in France, issued by Henry IV.
Elizabeth refuses to make peace without the Netherlands.
Lord Burleigh dies.
Shakespeare performs his own plays in London.
1599. Essex disgraced.
Spenser dies.
Oliver Cromwell born.
1600. Trial and pardon of Essex. [tern.
Charles Stuart (afterwards Charles I.)
The East India Company founded.

- Inquiries into electricity by Dr. W. Gilbert, of Colchester.
1601. Insurrection and execution of Essex.
The Spaniards land at Kinsale.
The Earl of Tyrone's rebellion suppressed by Mountjoy.
Monopolies abolished by Elizabeth.
English factories established on the Malabar coast of India.
The Poor Law of the forty-third year of Elizabeth passed.
Robert Cecil negotiates with James as to succession.
1603. Elizabeth dies, aged 69.

"Good Queen Bess."

GARTER KING-AT-ARMS.—"*Heaven, from thy endless goodness, send prosperous life, long, and ever happy, to the High and Mighty Princess of England, Elizabeth!*"—*Shakespeare: "Henry VIII."*

*"Send her victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us,
God save the Queen!"*

Henry Carey: "God save the Queen."

WE now come to the story of the reign of one of the most famous of all the sovereigns of England. The name of **Queen Elizabeth**,⁽⁶²⁾ or of "**Good Queen Bess**," as her people called her, is justly held in honour by Englishmen. It is true that Elizabeth did many things which appear to us cruel and harsh, and that she can be fairly charged with being mean in some things, and deceitful in others. More than once she used her power and her high position to injure those of whom she was jealous or whom she feared. But when all that can be said against Queen Elizabeth has been said, we must still admit that she was a wonderful woman and a great queen.

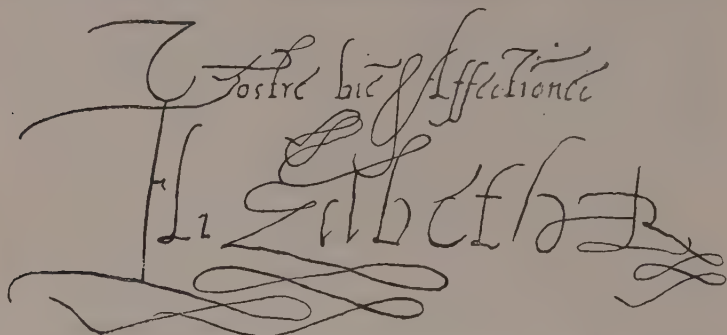
Whatever mistakes she made, there was one mistake which Elizabeth was never guilty of. She never forgot that she was *Queen of England*, and that it was her duty to make England great, prosperous, and respected.

Edward VI. had tried to reign as king of the *Protestants* of England, **Mary** as queen of the *Roman Catholics* of England. But from the very beginning of her reign, **Elizabeth** tried to reign, not as queen of this party or of that, but as queen of *all the people of England*. As long as people served her faithfully, obeyed the laws which she approved, and were true to the country, she was true to them. Her faults were best

known to those who lived near her, and who had much to do with her; but it was her virtues and not her faults which English men and English women who did not live at the Court saw and understood.

The accession of the new queen was the signal for rejoicing throughout the land. Men of all parties were tired of the cruelties and the misfortunes of Mary's reign, and there was but one cry heard as Elizabeth rode into London—it was the cry of "God save the Queen."

Parliament, in the time of Henry VIII., had passed an Act declaring that Elizabeth had no right to come to the throne. But by a later Act the King had been given power to declare in his will who should succeed him, and he had actually made a will naming Elizabeth as Queen in due



QUEEN ELIZABETH'S SIGNATURE.

course. Now nearly everyone was glad to see Elizabeth on the throne, safe and well, for during Mary's reign her life had often been in danger.

Mary was, above all things, a friend of the Pope: Elizabeth had been brought up in the Reformed Religion, and was the hope of all those who belonged to it. During her sister's reign, Elizabeth had really been kept prisoner, first in one place and then in another. The Pope's party had over and over again tried to find her out in some plot against Queen Mary, or to prove that she was trying to upset the Old Religion. But Elizabeth had been wise and wary. She had taken care not to give offence, or to do anything which might give her enemies power over her, and thus she had managed to escape safely through all the dangers which had threatened her.

It was, perhaps, a good thing for Elizabeth that she had been a prisoner while she was young, and that she had learnt what was meant by the religious persecutions which had gone on all around her. When she came to be queen, she showed a caution and a wisdom which were not to be expected in so young a woman.

As soon as the news of Queen Mary's death was known, Elizabeth was brought up from Hatfield, where she was staying, and was at once recognised as queen by all parties. She was twenty-five years old when she came to the throne, and seldom was any woman, whether queen or not, better provided with learning and accomplishments. She had studied deeply history, philosophy, and poetry. She wrote, and wrote well, English, French, Italian, Latin, and Greek. She was a beautiful dancer, and could play and read music.

Whether at any time of her life she were really beautiful, it is hard to say. If we were to believe all that her flatterers said and wrote about her, we must believe that she was the most beautiful creature that ever lived upon earth. If, on the other hand, we are to take as true all the unkind things that were said of her by her enemies, we shall think of her as a plain, awkward, dried-up little shrew, who had no beauty in anybody's eyes except her own.

The pictures of Queen Elizabeth do not tell us very much, for, in the first place, they are not all alike, and, in the second place, pictures can flatter as well as courtiers; though, to tell the truth, if we are to judge by the pictures only, we shall not think that Elizabeth was a very beautiful woman. It seems most likely that the real Elizabeth was something between what her friends on the one side, and her enemies on the other, declared her to be.

When she was young she was probably bright, graceful, and dignified, and most people were ready to think that a graceful young queen, dressed in the richest clothes that wealth could buy, was beautiful. As years went by and the queen became an old woman, not only did she lose her good looks, but there seems no doubt that she made the mistake of trying by her dress and by her manner to look young and beautiful, long after the time of youth and beauty had gone.

The Queen's Ministers—The Claim of the Queen of Scots.

"The wisest Princes need not thinke it any diminution of their Gretnesse, or derogation to their Sufficiency to rely upon counsell."—*Bacon's Essays.*

We now come to an account of what took place in the first years of Elizabeth's reign. **Mary** had been the queen of the Old Religion, **Elizabeth** was to be the queen of the New Religion; and she was wise

enough to see that she could only be safe if she openly declared herself on the side of the Reformers, who were now the stronger party in the kingdom, and who were ready to serve her with devotion.

One of the first things that Elizabeth did was to choose her ministers, and she showed her wisdom by her choice. Her chief minister was **William Cecil**. Cecil had been a friend of the Duke of Northumberland in the time of Edward VI. Under Mary he had

declared himself to be a friend of the old religion. Now that Elizabeth was on the throne he came forward as a Protestant; but though he had made many changes before he became Elizabeth's minister, he made none after that time.

For forty years Cecil served the queen faithfully. He helped her with his wise counsel in all her difficulties. Elizabeth, on her side, knew that she could trust Cecil more than any other adviser, and



LORD BURLEIGH.

(From a painting by Mark Gerard.)

she was true to him to the end of his life. She made him *Lord Burleigh*, and she gave him great wealth and power, which he always used wisely. Few sovereigns have had a better minister than Elizabeth, and few ministers have ever been better trusted or better rewarded than **William Cecil, Lord Burleigh**.

From the time of Queen Elizabeth, the family of Cecil has often taken a part in directing the affairs of this country. In our own lifetime Robert Cecil, Marquess of Salisbury, has, like William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, been the trusted minister of the Queen of England. Among the other ministers whom the queen chose were **Walsingham**,

Nicholas Bacon, and **Lord Robert Dudley**, the brother of **Guildford Dudley**, the unfortunate husband of **Lady Jane Grey**.

As soon as **Elizabeth** had been crowned queen, it became clear that there were many difficulties before her. Most of the countries of Europe accepted her as the true Queen of England, but there were two exceptions. **Paul IV.**, who was then Pope, told the English ambassador that **Elizabeth** had no right to be queen, but that if she would send and beg for his permission to succeed to the throne he would give it. **Elizabeth** did not trouble **Paul IV.** She neither asked for nor wanted his permission. She ordered her ambassador to leave Rome; and she reigned for forty-five years without the Pope's leave, but with the full agreement of the people of England.

The other exception to the friendliness of the sovereigns of Europe was the conduct of **Henry II.**, King of France. **Henry** declared that **Elizabeth** had no right to come to the throne. The true heir, he said, was **Mary Stuart**,⁽⁶⁹⁾ great-granddaughter of **Henry VII.**, who had married the *Dauphin Francis*, the heir to the throne of France.

As this claim which was made by the King of France on behalf of **Mary Stuart** was the beginning of a bitter quarrel between **Elizabeth** and **Mary**, and led to much trouble and sorrow, we must try to understand how it arose.

We shall understand this most easily if we look at the plan which shows the family of **Henry VII.** (see pp. 432 and 803). It will be seen that **Elizabeth** properly came before **Mary Stuart**, because she was the daughter of **Henry VII.'s son**, while **Mary**, was descended from **Margaret**, **Henry VII.'s daughter**. It is true that **Margaret** was older than **Henry**, but by the law and custom of England, the son of the king had the right to succeed to the throne before the daughter.

But the King of France did not forget that both the Pope and the Parliament of England had at one time declared that **Elizabeth** had no right to come to the throne. The Pope had declared that she could not come to the throne because **Henry** had no right to divorce **Catharine**, and to marry **Anne Boleyn**, **Elizabeth's mother**. The English Parliament in the reign of **Henry VIII.** had declared that **Elizabeth** could not succeed, because at that time **Henry** was angry with **Anne Boleyn**, and had ordered her to be executed. If it were true that **Elizabeth** had no right to come to the throne, then the King of France was quite right when he said that **Mary Stuart** was the next heir.

But there was a great deal to be said on the other side. In the first place, **Henry VIII.** had, with the consent of Parliament, made a will before he died, in which he specially declared that **Elizabeth**

should come to the throne. In the second place, whatever the King of France thought, the people of England had made up their minds that they did not want, and would not have, either a foreign queen or a queen of the old religion, but that they did want, and would have, an English and a Protestant queen.

And there was a third reason, which no doubt had a great deal of weight with people in England who at first felt inclined to agree with the King of France, namely, that Parliament passed an Act declaring that Elizabeth was the true heir to the throne both by birth and by law, and that any man or woman who declared the contrary should be put to death, and thus it came about that, despite the Pope and despite the King of France, Elizabeth found herself seated firmly upon the throne.

The Act of Uniformity, and the Court of High Commission—The “Puritans.”

“Men must beware, that in the Procuring of Religious Unity, they doe not Dissolve and Deface the Lawes of Charity and of humane Society.”—Bacon's Essays.

Two things began at once to occupy the new queen. One was the question of *religion*, the other was the question of *marriage*. Just as Mary had turned out the Protestant bishops, so Elizabeth now turned out all the Roman Catholic bishops who would not admit that Elizabeth was the true head of the Church. All the bishops but one were turned out, and Protestants put in their places; but most of the parish clergymen kept their places, and readily agreed to accept the Protestant services. Indeed, most of them were Protestants at heart.

Parliament then passed two Acts (1559), called respectively the **Act of Uniformity** and the **Act of Supremacy**. The former enacted not only that everybody in the country should publicly attend the Protestant services, but declared that all the Protestant services throughout the country were to be of one uniform pattern. The latter declared all persons to be guilty of high treason who did not admit the queen's title. Many persons were punished under these laws, and many were put to death for disobeying them. The charge which was made against those who offended against the Act of Supremacy was that they had been guilty of *high treason*. In order to carry out the Act

of Uniformity, a special Court was set up, called the **Court of High Commission**.

Most of those who were tried and punished by the Court of High Commission were Roman Catholics and friends of the Pope, but some were Protestants. Many of the Protestants who had fled from the country in the time of Queen Mary had lived during their exile in Germany or Switzerland. In the latter country they had become the followers of a French Protestant preacher named **Calvin**, and were known as *Calvinists*.

In England they soon got another name. They believed that the Reformation had not gone nearly far enough, and that the Church which Elizabeth had set up under the Act of Uniformity was too much like the Roman Catholic Church whose place it had taken. They said that in a true Protestant Church there ought to be no bishops, and that each congregation ought to choose its own minister, and they declared that many other things were needed to *purify* the Protestant Church and to make it what it ought to be.

Because they desired, as they said, to *purify* the Church, these men came to be called *Puritans*; and though they did not become very powerful in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, we shall learn further on in our history that they played a great part in later times.

Elizabeth would not allow anyone, whether Roman Catholic or Protestant, to break the laws which she had made. She did not, like Queen Mary, say that people might not *think* what they liked, nor did she put people to death on account of what they thought or believed, but she declared that everyone who publicly broke the Act of Uniformity or the Act of Supremacy should be punished. And thus it was that both Roman Catholics and Puritans alike came to be condemned by the Court of High Commission.

It is sad to think that a Protestant queen and a Protestant parliament should have forgotten how much they owed to those who had fought and died for the right to worship God in the way they thought right. It is sad to think that under Elizabeth men were put to death for their religion, but, unfortunately, there is no doubt that such was the case.

There is one thing, however, which we must remember. The Roman Catholics who refused to obey the Acts were friends of the Pope, and there is no doubt that the Pope would have gladly given his help to any foreign nation which would have sent an army into England, take the crown away from Queen Elizabeth, and to force the country back into the old religion.

It is not true to say that all the Roman Catholics who were put to

death by the Court of High Commission were guilty of high treason. But it cannot be doubted that many of them hoped to see a change made in England by the help of foreign armies. No one need ever feel sorry for an Englishman who is put to death because he has been plotting to bring foreign soldiers into England against the will of the people. A man who does this is a traitor, and the sooner he is punished the better.

The Queen and Her Suitors.

*"Cupid all arm'd; a certain aim he took
At a fair vestal throned by the west,
And loos'd his love-shaft smartly from his bow,
As it should pierce a hundred thousand hearts;
But I might see young Cupid's fiery shaft
Quench'd in the chaste beams of the wat'ry moon
And the imperial votaress passed on,
In maiden meditation, fancy-free."*¹

Shakespeare: "A Midsummer Night's Dream."

There was another important question besides that of religion which troubled Elizabeth and her ministers at the very beginning of her reign. This was the question of the queen's marriage. It was very important to the country that the queen should marry, so that there might be a Protestant heir to the throne; but to those who remembered the harm which had been done by Queen Mary's marriage with Philip of Spain, it seemed also of the greatest importance that the queen should marry the right person.

There was not likely to be any difficulty in finding a suitor for the hand of a young queen, and, indeed, there was no lack of persons ready to offer themselves; and it was soon seen that the difficulty would now be to choose among so many.

Among those who sought the hand of the queen were her brother-in-law, **Philip the Second of Spain**; **Charles of Austria**, son of the Emperor Ferdinand; **Eric, King of Sweden**; the **Duke of Holstein**, son of the King of Denmark; and the **Duke of Anjou**, brother of Henry III., King of France. Never did a lady have such distinguished wooers. Parliament sent an address to the queen begging her to take a husband. The queen thanked the members, but said she would rather remain

¹ Spoken by *Oberon*, of *Titania*, Queen of the Fairies, but meant by Shakespeare to be a compliment to Queen Elizabeth.



QUEEN ELIZABETH AND HER COURTIER.

single. At the same time she would not say "No" to her suitors, and seemed to incline now to one and now to another.

The Duke of Anjou was, perhaps, the one for whom she had the greatest liking, but in the end Elizabeth stuck to the resolution which she had expressed in her answer to Parliament. She would have no husband, and remained single to the end of her days—*The Virgin Queen*. Whether it were that she feared the loss of her power if she had a husband, or whether it were that she never found a husband to her liking, is not certain, but, whatever her reason, Elizabeth chose to remain unmarried.

The first part of the new reign was not fortunate for England. The queen was forced to agree to give up the English claims to Calais, a town which every Englishman still hoped might be won back again; and the French town of Havre, which had been captured by the English troops, was retaken by the French after a fierce siege.

France at this time was governed by the Roman Catholic party, and for this reason was hostile to Protestant England. There were, however, in France, a great number of Protestants who, under the name of *Huguenots* (derived from the German word *Eidgenossen*, meaning "Confederates") were trying hard to upset the French Government and to put a Protestant king upon the throne. Although Elizabeth did not like to make war openly upon France, she constantly sent help to the Huguenots, and allowed English soldiers to go over and fight on their side. This was another cause for disagreement between England and France at the beginning of Elizabeth's reign; and there was a third cause, about which we shall read in the next chapter, and which at one time seemed as if it would prove more serious than either of the others.



CHAPTER XLIV.

THE SORROWFUL HISTORY OF MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

Mary in Scotland.

*"Adieu, beloved France, adieu,
 Thou ever wilt be dear to me,
 Land which my happy childhood knew,
 I feel I die in quitting thee."*

Marx Béranger : "Mary Stuart's Farewell."

WE must not forget that **Mary Stuart**, who had married the Dauphin of France, was also by right Queen of Scotland. In 1559 **Henry II.**, King of France, died, and **Francis II.**, Mary's husband, became King of France. It appeared as though there were here the beginning of a great danger for England. That the Queen of France should be also Queen of Scotland, and that both she and her husband should be Roman Catholics and eager to support the old religion, seemed a very serious matter. Luckily, however, for England, the young King Francis died before he had reigned eighteen months (1560), and was succeeded by his brother **Charles IX.**

Mary was now no longer Queen of France. Her mother-in-law, **Catherine de Medicis**, hated her, and Mary was glad of any reason which would take her away from the French Court, where she was now no longer mistress, and where, since the new king had come to the throne, she had few friends and many enemies. When, therefore, the message reached Mary from the Parliament of Scotland inviting her to come back to her own country and live among her subjects, she accepted, if not with joy, at any rate willingly.

On the 15th day of August, 1561, she set sail from Calais. Her heart sank as she saw the shores of France, the land in which she had been so happy, pass slowly out of sight, and tears came to her eyes as she bade adieu to that pleasant country. English ships of war were looking out for her, for Mary claimed to be Queen of England, and thereby declared herself an enemy of Elizabeth. But a sea-fog favoured the Queen of Scots, and she reached Leith, the seaport of Edinburgh, in safety.

And now, before we go any further with the story of Mary, Queen

of Scots, we must pause for a moment to learn what was the condition of **Scotland** at this time. Unless we do so, we shall not be able to understand how it was that the story of the "Queen of Scots" plays so important a part in the history of England.

The division which had been caused in England by the **Protestant Reformation** had been very great, but in Scotland the division was

even greater, for the two parties soon came to blows, and a fierce civil war broke out. We have seen how among the Protestant exiles, who came back at the beginning of Elizabeth's reign, there were followers of Calvin, men who afterwards were called *Puritans* in England, but the fiercest and most earnest follower of Calvin came to Scotland. This was **John Knox**, who soon became the head of the party of Reformers in Scotland. Everywhere he preached against the Roman Catholic Church, and went so far as to make violent attacks upon the



MARY STUART, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

queen to her face. He preached so fiercely against her one day that Mary, frightened by his language and by his harsh appearance, burst into tears.

But though the party of Knox and the Reformers was very strong, Mary, too, had many friends. She was young and she was beautiful. There seems no doubt, indeed, that she was one of the most beautiful women of her time. She could always reckon upon the goodwill of France, now she had left it, and the Roman Catholic party in Scotland was still powerful.

Nor was this all. There were many thousands in England who belonged to the old religion, and who believed that Elizabeth had no right to the crown. But if Elizabeth had no right to the crown, then Mary, Queen of Scots was the true Queen of England. Thus it will be seen that Mary had good friends, and a great chance of success when she first came to Scotland. If she had only shown more wisdom her fate might have been a very fortunate one, but she chose to do things which made her own friends desert her, and which made her enemies feel that she was a danger to them as long as she lived.

Mary's first husband had been **Francis II.**, King of France, and she was now a widow; but it was not long before she married again. She chose as her husband **Henry Darnley**,⁽⁷⁰⁾ a young nobleman of handsome appearance but of a bad and brutal character. She soon learned to hate her new husband.

Among the courtiers of the queen was an Italian named **David Rizzio**, of whom the queen was very fond. He was a good musician and a clever talker, and the queen, fresh from the gay Court of France, liked his company much better than that of the savage Scottish nobles who were the companions of Henry Darnley.

In a fit of jealousy, Darnley, with three of the lords—Morton, Ruthven, and Lindsay—broke into the room where the queen was sitting with the Countess of Argyle and Rizzio. Mary tried to protect her friend, but the lords dragged Rizzio from her and murdered him with their daggers in the next room. In the royal palace of Holyrood, in Edinburgh, the room is still shown where Mary was



JOHN KNOX.

sitting when her husband and his cruel friends broke in, and the place is pointed out where Rizzio fell pierced with no less than fifty-five wounds. From that moment the queen determined to be rid of Darnley, and her determination was all the greater because she had already made up her mind to marry a third husband.

The husband whom the queen had made up her mind to marry was the **Earl of Bothwell**. It was not long before the queen was free to do what she wished. Darnley fell ill of small-pox. By the queen's order he was brought to her house near Edinburgh, called the **Kirk-o'-fields**. Mary herself went to nurse him there, but returned to Edinburgh in the evening. On the night of the 9th February, 1567, she left her husband at ten o'clock to go to a ball at the palace. At three o'clock in the morning a violent explosion took place. Kirk-o'-fields was blown up by gunpowder, and the body of Darnley was found among the ruins. No one doubted that **Bothwell** had been the murderer, and many declared that the queen had known of the plot.

The Flight of Mary, Queen of Scots.

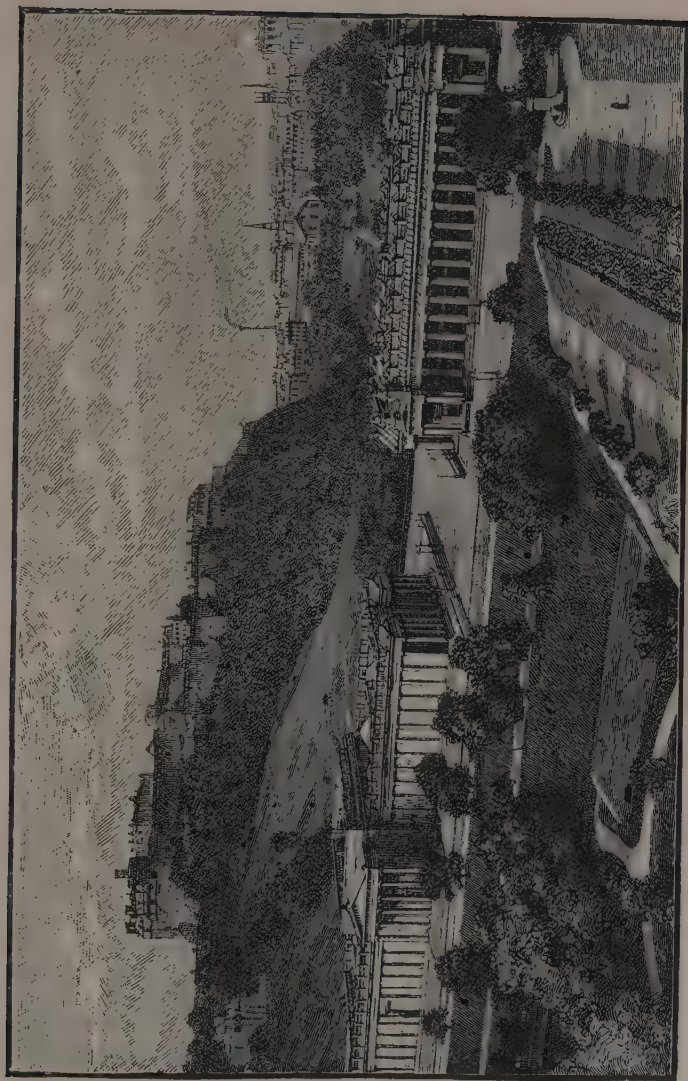
"The Queen, the Beauty sets the world in arms."

Johnson: "Vanity of Human Wishes."

But although everyone, whether in Scotland and in other countries, declared that Bothwell was her husband's murderer, Mary was determined to have her own way, and married him two months after the death of Darnley.

At first the Parliament of Scotland had declared that Bothwell was innocent, but as soon as the queen actually married him they no longer pretended to have any doubt of his guilt. A number of the Protestant lords took up arms. They declared Bothwell to be the murderer of the king, they sent to Queen Elizabeth for help, and they marched against Mary and her husband. Bothwell fled to the Orkney Islands. Hunted from his refuge, he put to sea, and was driven by a storm on to the coast of Norway. There he was taken, imprisoned as a pirate, and died in prison eleven years later.

Queen Mary herself was taken prisoner by the lords and shut up in Lochleven Castle, in the middle of Loch Leven. It was not long, however, before the queen succeeded in making her escape. No sooner was she free than she called upon her friends to help her.



EDINBURGH AT THE PRESENT DAY,

(From a photograph by A. A. Inglis.)

She at once raised an army, and marched against her half-brother, **Murray**, the leader of the Protestant lords. The two armies met at **Langside**, near Glasgow, and the battle which took place ended in the entire defeat of the queen's troops.

Mary herself rode off at full speed, and never stopped till she reached **Dundrennan**, on the Solway Firth. There she paused, uncertain what course to take. Behind her were Murray and the Scottish lords, her bitter enemies; in front, across the waters of the Solway, were England and Queen Elizabeth, whose crown she had claimed and whose enmity she had good reason to fear. Her friends advised her not to set foot in England, but rather to return to her friends in France.

Mary, however, made up her mind to take refuge in England and to trust to the goodwill of Elizabeth. She crossed the water in a small boat and landed at **Workington**, in Cumberland. Thence she went to **Carlisle**. News was at once brought to Elizabeth that her rival was now in her power. From that day forward Mary was really a prisoner during the whole of the nineteen years which passed between the day of her defeat at Langside and the day of her death (1587).

The Queen of Scots in England.

*"The glory and the glow
Of the world's loveliness hath passed away;
And Fate hath little to inflict to-day,
And nothing to bestow."*

W. M. Praed: "Retrospect."

The story of these years is a sorrowful one. It is not easy, even at the present day, to give a clear account of what really took place, or to say how far Mary, Queen of Scots deserved the fate that overtook her. Even now, three hundred years after the time when these things took place, there are many people who declare that Mary was a good and an honest woman, most unjustly and cruelly treated by Elizabeth. On the other hand, there are many who declare that Mary was a bad woman, who, having murdered one husband in order to marry another, took part in plots against the life of Queen Elizabeth, and was ready to get the help of France, Spain, or Scotland to enable her to seize the crown of England against the wishes of the English people.

One thing, however, is certain—namely, that while Mary, Queen of Scots remained alive and in England she was always a danger to Elizabeth and to the Protestant cause. In France, in Spain, and in Scotland her best friends were the worst enemies of England. On Queen Elizabeth's death, Mary would, beyond doubt, have become Queen of England, and the enemies of England would have expected her to help them, and to put down the Protestants.

While Mary was in England, plot after plot was made against Elizabeth by Mary's friends, and by men who looked to her as their rightful queen. Whether Mary knew of all or of any of these plots is uncertain. It is most probable that she knew of most of them, but it is not proved that she helped them on. It was certainly believed that she had taken part in the murder of Darnley, and a box or casket was found, containing letters which proved, if they were genuine, that Mary certainly did know of the murder.

But there were many who said then, and many who still believe, that these "casket letters," as they were called, were forgeries—that is to say, that they were written by Mary's enemies for the purpose of making people believe that she was guilty.

Whatever may have been the truth about Mary's guilt, Elizabeth made up her mind from the time Mary first came into Carlisle that she should be kept a prisoner. Year after year the beautiful Queen of Scots was moved from one prison to another. Each time a new plot was discovered, or each time Elizabeth's friends declared that they had found out a new plot, Mary's imprisonment was made stricter and harsher.

She begged to see Elizabeth, but Elizabeth never consented to see her. At length Mary was removed to her last prison, the Castle of **Fotheringay**, near Peterborough. Whether at that time Elizabeth had made up her mind that Mary should be put to death is not certain, but the discovery of a new plot sealed her fate. The plot, which was known as *Babington's conspiracy*, was the work of a young man named **Babington**. His plan was to set Mary Stuart free, to stab Queen Elizabeth with a dagger, to invite the Spanish troops in the Netherlands to come over and attack England, and to set up the Roman Catholic religion again. Whether Mary knew of this plot is not quite certain. It does not seem likely that she approved of it, but she had received a letter from Babington, and this letter was found.

Elizabeth and her ministers now decided that the time had come when an end must be put, once for all, to these dangers. Babington and his friends were taken, tried, and executed. The next thing to be done was to try Mary herself. The trial took place at Fotheringay.

It was soon plain to all that the judges whom Elizabeth had appointed had already made up their minds as to what their sentence was to be. Mary was to die.

In these last hours of her life the Queen of Scots behaved with wonderful courage. She asked to be brought face to face with her accusers. She declared that she was Queen of Scots, and that an English court had no right to try her. She was innocent, she said, and she was about to be unjustly condemned without being heard in her own defence.

But neither her courage nor her arguments moved the minds of her judges. On the 25th of October, 1586, the judges gave their sentence. They declared that "*Mary Stuart, commonly called Queen of Scots,*" was guilty of "*pretending a title to the Crown of this Realm of England, tending to the hurt, death, and destruction of the Royal Person of our Lady the Queen.*" They also declared that she had taken part in Babington's plot. Their sentence was that she should be put to death.

Parliament at once begged Elizabeth to order the sentence to be carried out. There can be no doubt that most Englishmen, and nearly all Protestant Englishmen, were tired of these plots against their queen; and that when the Parliament begged Elizabeth to put Mary to death they really spoke the wishes of the people. For some time Elizabeth refused to sign the warrant, or order, for the execution. Whether she really wished to save Mary's life or not is uncertain, but she wished to be able to say that she had consented to sign the death-warrant against her own will, and only because her Parliament and her ministers told her that it was her duty. At last, however, she gave an order to affix the Great Seal to the warrant.

And now we come to the last scene in the life of the unhappy Mary, Queen of Scots. The courage which had kept her up through the trial did not forsake her on the scaffold. She listened quietly to the reading of the order for her death. She declared that after nearly twenty years of imprisonment death was welcome, and that she was glad to die for her religion. As for the plots against Queen Elizabeth, she vowed that she had never taken any part in them by thought, deed, or word.

On the next day (February 8th, 1587), early in the morning, she was led into the great hall of Fotheringay Castle. It was hung with black, and in the middle were the executioner and the block. The ladies who were with her wept bitterly, but Mary herself remained firm till the fatal moment when the axe of the executioner fell. Thus died the unfortunate Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, in the forty-fifth year of her age.

CHAPTER XLV.

PROTESTANTS AND ROMAN CATHOLICS ABROAD
AND AT HOME.

The Huguenots.

"Remember Saint Bartholomew!"—Macaulay: "Ivry."

BUT if Elizabeth had troubles at home, she had also troubles abroad. The same quarrel between Protestants and Roman Catholics which was going on in England and Scotland was going on at the same time in almost all the countries of Europe. In **France** the Protestants, who were called *Huguenots*, had grown in numbers, and had gained strength; but the Roman Catholic party was still stronger. In **Spain** the cruel persecution which had been undertaken had really succeeded, for the few Protestants in Spain had been put to death, or driven out of the country, or compelled to change their religion.

But, though the Spaniards had succeeded in putting down Protestantism in their own country, they found they had a harder task before them when they came to try to do the same thing in the **Netherlands**, which were at that time under the government of the King of Spain. The sturdy Dutchmen fought fiercely for their religion, and they had on their side the goodwill of all the Protestants of England.

It was not easy for Elizabeth to know what was the wisest course to take. She was a Protestant queen, and both she and her people wished that the Protestant cause should triumph in Europe. But Spain and France were powerful countries, and it was a dangerous thing for a queen who had enemies enough at home, to declare war openly upon such powerful sovereigns as the kings of Spain and France.

But what Elizabeth did not dare to do many of her subjects undertook. Hundreds of Englishmen crossed over to France and to the Netherlands to fight on the side of their Protestant friends. There can be no doubt that Elizabeth wished for their success, and

often gave them help in their expeditions; but if they failed in what they undertook, she was careful to declare that they had acted against her will and contrary to her wish.

At the beginning of Elizabeth's reign **France** was an enemy to England, and **Spain** was for a short time friendly with England, but before many years had gone by this state of things had changed. Two things had happened in France which helped to bring about the change.



HENRY IV. OF FRANCE AND NAVARRE.
(From a painting by Rubens.)

On the 24th of August, 1572, *St. Bartholomew's Day*, a terrible massacre had taken place. The followers of the **Duke of Guise**, who was at the head of the Roman Catholic party in France, had murdered no less than 40,000 of the chief men among the Protestant party in Paris. The houses of the Huguenots had been marked beforehand, and on the evening of *St. Bartholomew's Day* the cruel work of dragging condemned men from their houses and of putting them to death was begun. **Admiral Coligny**, the chief of the Huguenots in Paris, was among those who were murdered.

The king, **Charles IX.**, himself had taken part in the massacre. It was said that he amused himself by shooting down the

Protestants from the window of his palace. The **Pope, Gregory XIII.**, approved of the action of the Roman Catholics. It is easy to understand that this cruel massacre made the Protestants of England more determined than ever to stand by their queen and to protect themselves against a danger such as that which had overtaken their friends in France.

In France itself it soon became clear that the massacre had done more harm than good to the Roman Catholic cause. **Henry of Navarre**, the leader of the Huguenots, had escaped with his life, but on the death, in 1589, of Henry III., who had succeeded

Charles IX. as King of France, he took up arms and put himself at the head of his party. He won a great victory at the **Battle of Ivry** (1590), and was able to advance as far as Paris itself. He was told that the people of Paris would welcome him, and would receive him as their king. But on one condition only. He must declare himself a Roman Catholic. "*Paris is worth a mass,*"¹ said the king; and he consented to make the change which was required of him. In March, 1593, he entered Paris to be crowned **Henry IV., King of France.**

But though Henry IV., King of France, had changed his religion to gain a kingdom, he remained till the end of his life a good friend to the Huguenots, to whose help he owed his crown. He issued an *edict*, or decree, which was called the **Edict of Nantes**, from Nantes, a town on the west coast of France, at which the decree was signed (1598). The "Edict of Nantes" gave to the French Protestants the right to follow their own religion, and to live in France as the equals of the Roman Catholics. Nor was this all; as long as he lived, Henry IV. was a good friend to Elizabeth and to Protestant England. It is easy, therefore, to understand how great a change took place in the feeling between England and France when Henry IV. became king.

England and Spain.

"The life-and-death wrestle between the Reformation and the Old Religion had settled into a permanent struggle between England and Spain. France was disabled. All the help which Elizabeth could spare barely enabled the Netherlands to defend themselves. Protestantism, if it conquered, must conquer on another field, and by the circumstances of the time the championship of the Reformed Faith fell to the English sailors."—Froude.

But though England had now many friends in **France**, it was soon clear that she had made an enemy of **Spain**. It will be remembered that **Philip II.** of Spain, after the death of Queen Mary, had made an offer for the hand of his sister-in-law, Queen Elizabeth. Elizabeth had refused the offer. She had made up her mind not to marry at all, but if she did marry she knew better than to choose for her husband a man so hated by her subjects as Philip II. It will easily be understood that the refusal of Elizabeth to accept him as her husband may have made Philip unfriendly towards England.

¹ *Mass*, a form of service in the Roman Catholic Church.

But Philip soon had much stronger reasons for looking on England as an enemy. The time about which we are now reading was a time in which almost every year brought some new discovery. Each year bold sailors from Portugal, Spain, France, and England, sailed further and further, into seas till then unknown, and brought back rich merchandise from countries which people from Europe had never before visited.

The **Portuguese** and the **Spaniards** had got the start of the other nations of Europe. Already the Portuguese had established colonies in the East, while the Spaniards had conquered Mexico and other parts of the coast of America, which were then known as the *Spanish Main*, or mainland. From their new possessions the Spaniards brought into Europe immense riches in the form of gold and silver from the mines of Mexico and Peru. Most of the new lands which they had conquered were in hot climates, where white men could not work, and already the cruel trade known as the slave trade had begun. Slaves, most of them from Africa, were taken across the sea to work in the new colonies.

But it soon became pretty clear that the wealth of Mexico and the Spanish Main was not to be left in the hands of Spaniards alone. The Spaniards found themselves face to face with a nation of seamen, who step by step, and year by year, forced from them the place which they had so long held as the principal colonists of the New World.

Throughout the whole reign of Queen Elizabeth the great struggle between Spaniards and Englishmen was going on. It was a fierce and cruel struggle on both sides. Both Spaniards and Englishmen fought for gold, and men who fight for gold are often fierce enough and cruel enough.

But the fight between Spaniards and Englishmen was also a fight between **Roman Catholics** and **Protestants**, between the Old Religion and the New. The Spaniard looked upon the Englishman not only as a man who wished to rob Spain of the great prizes which she had won in the New World, but as a heretic, a man who was hateful to God, and who might justly burn at the stake for his sins. The Englishman, in his turn, looked upon the Spaniard as a cruel, narrow-minded man, the persecutor of Protestants, the friend of the cruel tortures of the Inquisition, and the enemy of England.

With these fierce hatreds on both sides, the strife between the two nations was certain to be fought out to the bitter end, and it is to this strife that we must now turn our attention, for unless we do so, we shall understand but little of the true history of the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

It was not to be supposed that Philip of Spain would long endure the attacks which were made upon his subjects by the English sailors. Indeed, he had plenty of reasons for being angry with Queen Elizabeth and her people. Philip had once been King of England, and after Mary's death he had sought the hand of Elizabeth in the hope that he might regain the place which he had lost. But Elizabeth, greatly to the joy of her subjects, had refused to become the wife of a Roman Catholic and a Spaniard.

For several years past English Protestant soldiers had been flocking over to the Netherlands to fight on behalf of their fellow Protestants against the Spaniards. And now **Frobisher, Drake**, and many another English captain, were engaged in burning Spanish ships, sacking Spanish colonies, seizing the wealth of Spain, under the very guns of the Spanish fortresses, and, in the words of Francis Drake, "doing all they could to *singe the King of Spain's beard*."

And last, but not least, Philip, as a great champion of the Pope, looked upon Elizabeth and her people as heretics, whom it was his duty to bring back—if necessary, by the sword—to the *true* religion. No wonder, then, that at last Philip of Spain should have made up his mind to strike one great blow at England, a blow which he hoped would once for all break the power of the Protestant party, and chase these fierce islanders from the sea.



CHAPTER XLVI.

THE STORY OF THE GREAT ARMADA.

England in Peril.

*"The nations not so blest as thee
Must in their turn to tyrants fall,
Whilst thou shalt flourish great and free,
The dread and envy of them all.*

*"Still more majestic shalt thou rise,
More dreadful from each foreign stroke;
As the loud blast that tears the skies
Serves but to root thy native oak.*

*"Thee haughty tyrants ne'er shall tame;
Thy cities shall with commerce shine,
And thine shall be the subject main,
And every shore it circles thine!*

*"Rule, Britannia! Britannia rules the waves!
Britons never shall be slaves!"*

Thomson: "Rule, Britannia."

IN the year 1587, Philip began to make preparations for the famous expedition against England which has made Queen Elizabeth's reign for ever famous in the history of our country. He collected sailors and soldiers not only from Spain, but from all those parts of Europe which were at that time under the government of Spain—from Sicily, Genoa, and Venice, and from the Low Countries.

It was Philip's plan to collect a large army near Antwerp, which is only two hundred miles from London, and to bring it across the Channel under the protection of a great fleet which was to sail from Spain. Thirty thousand foot-soldiers and eighteen hundred cavalry were collected in the Netherlands. Another great army was raised in Spain, and all the best and bravest soldiers of Spain came forward ready and longing to fight in the cause which they believed to be so

good a one, and to share in the victories which *the Invincible Armada*, or "The Unconquerable Fleet," was to earn for Spain.

But Philip was not content with collecting ships, soldiers, and sailors. He sent to the Pope to ask for his aid and his blessing. The Pope sent his blessing, and, in order to help still further the cause of Spain, he declared Elizabeth to be *deposed from her throne*. It may seem at first sight as if it mattered very little what the Pope said, and that no declaration made at Rome would alter things in England. But it must not be forgotten that many, if not all, of the Roman Catholics in England believed that the Pope had the right to depose Queen Elizabeth, and that when she had once been deposed they were no longer bound to obey her or to look upon her as their queen.

This was a real danger, and it is not to be wondered at that Elizabeth and her ministers should at first have taken very severe steps to prevent the Roman Catholics from giving any help to the Spaniards, or acting as the Pope wished them to act. Many were imprisoned upon very slight suspicion, and some were cruelly treated. There was also a real danger at one time lest the Protestants, who were now the larger part of the nation, should try to take vengeance upon the Roman Catholics for the massacre of St. Bartholomew and the cruelties which had been practised by the Spanish generals in the Netherlands.

Luckily, however, the danger passed over, and soon it was seen that, though there might be a few exceptions, when England was in peril of invasion by a foreign enemy, all Englishmen were united and ready to stand shoulder to shoulder for their country's cause.

Hundreds of Roman Catholics came forward and offered to serve by sea or by land against the enemy, determined to show that they were Englishmen first and servants of the Pope afterwards: a true and proper spirit for every man of English birth.

How the "Armada" came, and what they did in England.

"With God, for Queen and Fatherland."

And now we come to one of the most stirring and splendid chapters in the history of England—the story of how the country, with its great queen at its head, rose as one man to protect the shores of England

from the Spaniards. It seemed a fight against terrible odds. The fleets of Spain were the largest in the world. The thousands of soldiers who obeyed Philip had become hardened in the art of war, and were the foremost warriors of their age. The wealth of the New World filled the coffers of the Spanish king to overflowing.

England, on the other hand, seemed altogether unfitted to hold her own against such a foe. Her people were still divided by a great religious quarrel. Within the island, of which England formed but a part, there was another nation which might at any time take the opportunity of working off its old grudges against its old enemy. No one could say from day to day how soon a Scottish army might not cross the Border.

As to an English army, there was none. There were a certain number of armed men bound to serve the queen, but they were not accustomed to act together. Few of them had any experience of war, and training such as that of the well-drilled Spanish regiments was unknown. Of ships the country had a fair supply, but they were mostly small merchant vessels armed with a few guns, but not reckoned fit to fight against the tall ships and the heavily armed "galliassees" of Spain.

But some advantages England did possess. Her coasts could only be approached across a stormy sea, and, as has so often happened in English history, the winds and the waves proved her greatest ally. Moreover, Elizabeth, whatever faults she may have had, was a true Englishwoman, and fit to be queen of a great country in a time of trial. She faced the danger bravely. She called upon her people to stand by her, and with one accord the people answered her appeal.

On every side volunteers came forward in thousands. Merchants offered their ships for the war, and offered them with powder, shot, and crews all ready on board. A hundred and thirty thousand men were mustered throughout the kingdom. Fortifications were put up at the mouth of the Thames and elsewhere, and every ship fit for service was manned and stationed in the Channel.

There is a fine description of Queen Elizabeth taking her right place as chief of her people in time of danger. She rode down to Tilbury to review the army, and these are her words as they have come down to us:—

"My loving people! We have been persuaded by some that are careful of our safety to take heed how we commit ourselves to armed multitudes, for fear of treachery; but I assure you I do not desire to live to distrust my faithful and loving people. Let tyrants fear! I have always so behaved myself, that, under God, I have placed my chiefest strength and safeguard in the loyal hearts and goodwill of my subjects; and,



QUEEN ELIZABETH.

(From the Portrait by Zuccherò, in the possession of the Marquis of Salisbury).

therefore, I am come amongst you at this time, not as for my recreation and sport, but being resolved, in the midst and heat of the battle, to live or die amongst you all ; to lay down for my God, for my kingdom, and for my people, my honour and my blood even in the dust. I know that I have but the body of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and a king of England, too, and think foul scorn that Parma,¹ or Spain, or any prince of Europe, should dare to invade the borders of my realm ; to which, rather than any dishonour should grow by me, I will myself take up arms. I myself will be your general, the judge and rewarder of every one of your virtues in the field."

These were indeed words worthy of a Queen of England.

The preparations for the sailing of the great Armada dragged along very slowly. Once the ships put to sea, but were driven back by stormy weather. At last, on the 19th of July, 1588, the fleet started once more on its great task of conquering England.

The preparations which had been made were immense. The number of ships was **one hundred and thirty-one**. The number of sailors was nearly **8,000**. **Seventeen thousand soldiers** were packed into the different vessels. There were **180 priests** on board, and **85 surgeons and doctors**. The priests were to convert the English from their Protestantism when England had been taken. The doctors and surgeons were to take care of the wounded in case the Armada suffered any loss in battle. As matters turned out, the doctors found more to do than the priests. On one of the ships, the "**Capitana**," there was a chest full of beautifully made swords, which were to be given to the English Roman Catholic lords when they had joined the Spaniards against their queen and country.

The **Duke of Medina Sidonia** was at the head of the whole fleet. Under him was **Admiral Recalde**, and many other officers famous for their bravery and skill in war. The duke's orders were very strict. He was to sail up the Channel till he got to **Dunkirk**. He was to stop for no man. If the English came out to fight him he was to sail on and let them follow. When he got to Dunkirk, he was to take on board the army which was waiting there to join him. He was to enter the Thames, land the troops, and wait till England had submitted.

All went well with the great Armada for the first few days. A few ships which were scattered by a storm joined the fleet again. On a Friday afternoon the leading ships came within sight of the English land, and they could see the high cliffs of the Lizard to the north.

Meanwhile, in England the whole people, from Berwick to The

¹ The *Duke of Parma*, the Spanish general in the Netherlands.

Land's End, were waiting in anxious expectation for the first news of the enemy. Beacons were prepared along the coast, and on every high point throughout the country. The orders were to light them as soon as the Spanish ships were sighted.

"The Enemy in Sight."

*"Night sank upon the dusky beach, and on the purple sea,
Such night in England ne'er had been, nor e'er again shall be.
From Eddystone to Berwick bounds, from Lynn to Milford Bay,
That time of slumber was as bright and busy as the day."*

Macaulay: "The Armada."

It was a Scottish privateer named **Fleming** who first brought the news to **Plymouth** that the enemy was at hand. He had seen them off the Lizard, and they were coming up Channel with a fair wind.

When the news came, the captains of the warships were playing a game of bowls on Plymouth Hoe, a flat green space which looks out on the broad and beautiful waters of Plymouth Sound.

Here is a description of some of the men who were playing in this famous game of bowls, or who stood by to watch the players. The account is by Charles Kingsley, who wrote a noble and famous book called "**Westward Ho**," in which this whole story of the fight against the Armada is told at much greater length than it can be told here:—

"See those five talking earnestly. Those soft long eyes and pointed chin you recognise already; they are **Walter Raleigh's**. The fair young man in the flame-coloured doublet, whose arm is round Raleigh's neck, is **Lord Sheffield**; opposite them stands, by the side of **Sir Richard Grenville**, a man as stately even as he, Lord Sheffield's uncle, the **Lord Charles Howard of Effingham**, Lord High Admiral of England; next to him is his son-in-law, **Sir Robert Southwell**, captain of the *Elizabeth Jonas*; but who is that short, sturdy, plainly-dressed man, who stands with legs a little apart, and hands behind his back, looking up, with keen grey eyes, into the face of each speaker? His cap is in his hands, so you can see the bullet head of crisp, brown hair and the wrinkled forehead, as well as the high cheek-bones, the short square face, the broad temples, the thick lips, which are yet as firm as granite. A coarse plebeian stamp of man: yet the whole figure and attitude are those of boundless determination, self-possession, and energy; and when at last he speaks a few blunt words, all eyes are turned respectfully upon him—for his name is **Francis Drake**.

"A burly, grizzled elder, in greasy sea-stained garments, contrasting oddly with the huge gold chain about his neck, waddles up, as if he had been born, and had lived ever since, in a gale of wind at sea. The upper half of his sharp dogged visage seems of

brick-red leather, the lower of badger's fur; and as he claps Drake on the back, and with a broad Devon twaig, shouts, 'Be you a coming to drink your wine, Francis Drake, or be you not?—saving your presence, my Lord;' the Lord High Admiral only laughs, and bids Drake go and drink his wine; for **John Hawkins**, Admiral of the port, is the Patriarch of Plymouth seamen, if Drake be their hero, and says and does pretty much what he likes.

"In the crowd is many another man whom one would gladly have spoken with face to face on earth. **Martin Frobisher** and **John Davis** are sitting on that bench, smoking tobacco from long silver pipes."



ON THE WATCH: LIGHTING THE BEACON.

It was to this company that Captain Fleming brought his great piece of news. Lord Howard would have gone off at once to his ship, but Hawkins was in no such hurry. He would rather, he said, finish his game before he left. Drake agreed with Hawkins. "There was time to finish the game first, and beat the Spaniards afterwards." So the famous game was finished; and then the old sea captains turned to their work with a will. We shall see how well they did it.

As Drake said, "*there was time enough*," but there was not too much. The English ships with difficulty warped out to sea against a head wind. They got out just in time to see the great Spanish fleet sweeping up the Channel in an immense crescent, the horns of which were fully seven miles apart. For a short time the Spaniards



THE ARMADA COMING UP THE CHANNEL.

(From an old print)

paused. Many of the wisest of them were in favour of sailing into Plymouth Sound and engaging the English fleet in the narrow waters, where the heavy slow-sailing ships of Spain would fight to the greatest advantage.

“How the Armada Failed.”

*Then courage, noble Englishmen,
And never be dismayed;
If that we be but one to ten,
We will not be afraid.”*

“Ballad of Brave Lord Willoughby.”

But the Duke of Medina Sidonia dared not disobey his orders, and he sailed on again eastwards. Howard and Drake allowed the enemy to pass, and then followed them up the Channel. Soon the fighting began. The *Capitana* ran into another Spanish ship and became disabled. Her friends left her in the lurch, and she was soon captured by the English. On board her was found the chest of swords which were to have gone to the English Roman Catholic lords as soon as they had turned traitors to their country.

The Spaniards soon had reason to know that when England is in danger, Englishmen can put aside their differences; for some of these very Roman Catholic lords were at that moment in full pursuit of the Armada, and the heavy guns of their ships were firing their shot into the high sides of the Spanish vessels.

It soon became clear that, big as the Spanish ships were, they were no match either in sailing or in gunnery for the English. The English ships were longer and lower than those of the Spaniards. They sailed far better than the tall galleons. The Spaniards longed to get close with their enemy to grapple with him, and then make use of the crowds of soldiers whom they carried. But the English ships were too quick for them.

Moreover, it soon became clear that in another matter the English had an advantage. We have seen that as far back as the time of Henry VIII. very large cannon had been made in England, and those that were now carried on the English ships were heavier and more powerful than any which had ever been used at sea. “Never had there been so fierce a cannonade before in the history of the world,” said one of the Spanish officers.

It was feared at one time that the Spaniards might stop off the Isle of Wight and attack Portsmouth and Southampton. But once more the Duke of Medina Sidonia obeyed his orders, and kept on his way towards Dunkirk. Many of the English ships, after fierce fighting for many hours, ran out of powder, and had to go back to port for more. But those who returned for this purpose came back to the fleet again, and as the Spaniards got nearer to Dunkirk the English fleet increased.

At Dunkirk the Spaniards found their friends waiting for them on shore, and the English fleet under **Lord Howard, Drake, and Hawkins** was joined by another fleet under **Lord Henry Seymour**, which had been left to watch Dunkirk and protect the Thames. It was here that the great battle took place. The Spaniards would not come out to sea, so the English captains thought of a plan by which they could make them come out. Fire-ships were got ready filled with tar, powder, pitch, and everything that would burn fiercely. Two brave men, **Captain Young** and **Captain Prowse**, undertook to take the fire-ships close to the Spanish fleet. In the darkness they came within a short distance of where the Spaniards lay at anchor. The fire-ships were lighted and left to sail by themselves before the strong wind in among the Spanish lines.

The Spanish ships cut their anchor cables in their haste to escape from the terrible danger which threatened them, and got out to sea as best they could. But some had no spare anchors, and when they got outside the harbour, could not anchor again, and were carried far away from the rest of the fleet. Some of them drifted ashore and were wrecked; then, to make matters worse, the English fleet came sailing down with a fair wind.

The battle raged with fury. The shot from the heavy English cannon went through and through the Spanish ships, which were crowded with soldiers, the decks ran with blood, yet neither side would give way. But as the day drew on the Spaniards could bear it no longer. Some of their best ships were disabled or taken. Hundreds of their men had been killed. The water-casks which carried their fresh water had been shot through and through. There was nothing for it but to get away by the easiest road. At one time it seemed as if the wind would drive the fleet on shore, and for a time the Spaniards thought there would be nothing left for them but to surrender. But the wind changed, and blew, as it so often does in the Channel, from the south-west.

How the "Armada" went Home Again.

"Afflavit Deus et dissipantur."

"God blew with His breath, and they were scattered."

Motto on the medal struck to commemorate the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

What was left of the Armada toiled slowly on its way into the North Sea. The English did not follow. As has often happened in English history, those whose business it was to keep our soldiers and sailors properly supplied had not done their duty. Lord Howard, Drake, and all the other English sailors had fought their best, and were willing to go on fighting, but they could not fight without powder. There was no powder left in most of the ships, and there was no more to be got. But what the English cannon were not able to do was done by the stormy seas of the German Ocean and the Atlantic.

The Armada sailed north, past the mouth of the Thames, past Hull, and past Leith, until it reached Cape Wrath. There the vessels turned to the westward between the Orkney Islands and the mainland of Scotland. They dared not return through the narrow waters of the St. George's Channel, but kept on into the Atlantic till they had passed the north-west corner of Ireland.

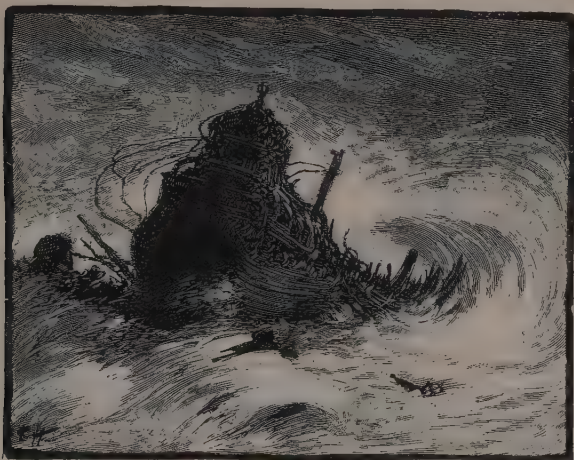
Then, at last, they turned southwards towards their Spanish homes, but few ever reached the ports from which they sailed. The great rollers of the Atlantic broke up the tall unwieldy ships, and the south-westerly gales drove them on to the rocky and inhospitable shores of Donegal, Sligo, Galway, and Kerry. Those who escaped the fury of the waves, fell into the hands of the wild Irish tribes, or of the English soldiers and settlers. The former in many cases put them to death for the plunder which might be taken from them. The latter threw them into prison or killed them, as enemies of England, and men likely to be dangerous in case they took part with those of the Irish who were in rebellion against Elizabeth.

Of the whole great expedition which had left Spain to conquer England less than **10,000 men** returned alive, and of these many hundreds, worn out by hardship and starvation, died shortly after they had returned to their homes.

When the news of the great disaster was brought to Philip, he bore himself like a brave man. He thanked Heaven that the misfortune was no worse. "*We are bound,*" he wrote, "*to give praise to God for*

all things which He is pleased to do. I, on the present occasion, have given thanks to Him for the mercy which He has shown. In the foul weather and violent storms to which the Armada has been exposed, it might have experienced a worse fate."

In England the news was received by all men with true joy and thankfulness. At last the power of Spain upon the sea had been broken, and England and the Protestant religion were safe from attack. A great Thanksgiving Service, at which the queen attended,



"ON THE ROCKS OF GALWAY."

was held in St. Paul's Cathedral. A medal was struck to mark the deliverance of the country from its enemies, and round its edge was written in Latin, "*God blew with His breath, and they were scattered.*"¹

It was, indeed, true, that although the valour, seamanship, and skill of our English seamen had broken the first attack of the Armada and saved the country from invasion, it was the winds and the waves, the tempests of the Atlantic, and the rock-bound coasts of Scotland and Ireland which had destroyed the proudest ships of the great Armada, and had wrecked for ever the hopes of the King of Spain.

¹ *Afflavit Deus et dissipantur.*

CHAPTER XLVII.

THE LAST YEARS OF THE GREAT QUEEN.

The Queen and Her Favourite.

"Essex, the ornament of the Court and of the Camp, the model of chivalry, the munificent patron of genius, whom great virtues, great courage, great talents, the favour of his sovereign, the love of his countrymen, all that seemed to ensure a happy and glorious life, led to an early and an ignominious death."

Macaulay: "Burleigh and his Times" (1832).

IT was in the year 1588 that the Spanish Armada was defeated, and Elizabeth had already reigned for thirty years. She was still unmarried. She had always feared that if she took a husband she might have to submit to his will and to give up her own. This, however, did not prevent her choosing from among her courtiers *favourites*, by whom for a time she allowed herself to be governed, and on whom she bestowed wealth, honours, and power.

It was in the year 1588 that the **Earl of Leicester**, who for several years had been the favourite of the queen, died. It was not long before she chose another of her courtiers to take his place. This was the **Earl of Essex**, a young man of great courage, very handsome, and much loved by the people. The earl soon gained great power over the queen, and like all men who gain great power, he made many enemies. Among these enemies were **Sir Walter Raleigh** and **Robert Cecil**, son of Lord Burleigh.

The enemies of Essex at length found an opportunity of injuring him in the eyes of the queen. A rebellion had broken out in Ireland (1599), at the head of which was **O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone**. Raleigh and Cecil persuaded the queen to send Essex as her general into Ireland. They felt sure that Essex, though brave, had not the wisdom nor the knowledge to enable him to carry on this difficult war. They proved to be right.

Essex failed to put down the rebellion, and returned to London disappointed and disgraced. **Lord Mountjoy** took his place as general in

Ireland, and after fierce fighting he succeeded in defeating O'Neil (1601). The war was marked by great cruelty on both sides, and the land was laid waste, towns and villages were burned to the ground over a large part of Ireland; but peace was at last restored, and the authority of the queen was fixed in the country more firmly than before.

Meanwhile the enemies of Essex were not content with what they had done. They brought charges against him, and accused him of having played the part of a coward in the war against the Earl of Tyrone. Essex was found guilty, and was sentenced to be imprisoned in his own house. He was soon set at liberty, and in fierce anger against his enemies he was unwise enough to try by force of arms to compel the queen to punish Cecil and his friends.

He appeared in the streets of London with three hundred armed men. He hoped that the Londoners, who had always been fond of him, would rise and help him. But no one moved. Essex was imprisoned, and sent to the Tower. He was tried, and condemned to death as a traitor. For some time Elizabeth refused to sign the order for his death, but at last she consented to do so, and her favourite was executed at the Tower.

There is a well-known story told of the death of Essex. It is said that Queen Elizabeth had given her favourite a ring, and had told him that if ever he needed her help in the time of danger or trouble, he should send this ring to her. As he lay in prison shortly before his death, the earl saw from the window of his cell a boy who, from his appearance, he thought might be trusted with the precious ring. He threw the ring through the window, the boy picked it up, and Essex begged him to carry it to his cousin Lady Scrope.

But the boy, unluckily, made a mistake. He took the ring on which Essex's life depended to **Lady Nottingham**, sister of Lady Scrope. Now, Lady Nottingham was a bitter enemy of the earl's, and she kept the ring. Elizabeth, so the story goes, waited long for the token which she expected to receive, but it never came. Believing that Essex was too proud or too angry to claim his life at her hands, Elizabeth signed the fatal order; and Essex, believing that Elizabeth had been false to him and to her promise, met his death (1601).

After the earl's death the Countess of Nottingham fell ill. On her death-bed she sent to beg the queen to come to her, and she confessed what she had done. She begged the Queen's pardon for her crime. Elizabeth was furious. She struck the dying countess in her fury. "*God may pardon you,*" she cried, "*but I will never pardon you.*"

The Death of the Great Queen.

"That great queen has now been lying two hundred and thirty years in Henry VII.'s Chapel. Yet her memory is still dear to the hearts of a free people."—*Macaulay* (1832).

The long reign of Elizabeth was now drawing to its close, and its close was sad and dark. Essex had been a favourite with the people, and Elizabeth felt that she had lost the love of many of her subjects by consenting to the death of a man whom she, too, loved. In her old age she had grown feeble, and her proud spirit often deserted her. She lay for hours by herself, speaking to no one, and refusing to be comforted. She had no child, and her courtiers were beginning to turn their thoughts from the old queen to the young king, who must so soon follow her on the throne.

Cecil and Raleigh had already begun to write letters to James of Scotland, for it was **James VI.**,⁽⁵⁵⁾ **King of Scotland**, who, by right of descent and by the will of Elizabeth herself, was now to become King of England. The fear which had been expressed when Henry VII. gave his daughter in marriage to the Scottish king, was now proved to be well-founded. The Queen of England, the granddaughter of Henry VII., was childless, and the Scottish king, descended from **Margaret Tudor**,⁽⁵⁵⁾ was to take his place upon the throne of England.

On the 24th of March, 1603, **Queen Elizabeth** died, at her palace at Richmond, in the seventieth year of her age and the forty-fifth of her reign. With all her faults she was one of the greatest of our sovereigns. With her we come to the end of the Tudor period. She was *the last of the Tudors*; and, what is more, she was *the last sovereign of England*. Never had **England** been greater or richer in famous men and famous deeds than in the time of its last sovereign.

The next reign brought a *Stuart* king to the throne. This Stuart king was king not only of **England** but of **Scotland**, and from that time onwards the history of **England** and the history of **Scotland** go forward, side by side, as the history of one great and united country. The last Queen of England lies in Westminster Abbey, and the beautiful monument raised to her memory may be seen to this day, in the stately chapel built by her grandfather, which forms part of the ancient Abbey of Westminster.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

A NEW WORLD AND A NEW AGE.

Rolling Back the Clouds.

*"We sailed wherever ships could sail,
We founded many a mighty state;
Pray God our greatness may not fail
Through craven fears of being great."—Tennyson.*

WE have now gone through the story of the Tudor period. With all their faults, no one can deny that Henry VII., Henry VIII., and Elizabeth were great sovereigns; and that under them England became great and prosperous. Indeed, the hundred and eighteen years between the Battle of Bosworth Field and the death of Queen Elizabeth may truly be said to have been the most glorious years in the history of England. For it must be remembered that up to the end of the year 1602 **England** stood alone. **Ireland** was more of a weakness than a strength, and **Scotland** was still a foreign country, and very often an enemy's country. The glory of the Tudor period is the glory of **England**.

It must, indeed, have been a wonderful time to live in. It must have seemed as if all the world were changing, that all the old things, and all the old thoughts which men were accustomed to, were giving place to new things which no man up to that time had ever dreamed of. Let us try to picture to ourselves some of these great changes. Let us try to understand what were the new things that came into the world between the death of **Richard III.** and the death of **Queen Elizabeth**.

To begin with, it is true to say that the world itself was doubled for every Englishman. On the preceding page we see a map of the world as it was known to the poet Chaucer, to Henry V., the brave victor of Agincourt, or to the men and women of Henry VI.'s time. Mark how small is the part which stands out from the dark cloud. Now look at the map on p. 399, which shows the world as it was known to the Englishmen and Scotsmen who stood round King James I. at his coronation. Mark how the clouds are rolled back, how the light



THE KNOWN WORLD AT THE CLOSE OF THE TUDOR PERIOD.

shines upon the great continent of America, upon the **Cape of Good Hope** the southern point of Africa, upon **Japan** in the far east, and even upon the coast of **Australia** in the distant southern sea.

Year after year during this wonderful hundred years, brave men set out upon new and adventurous journeys. Each year the news came back that in despite of stormy seas, of fierce enemies, of sickness, and of all the dangers which beset the traveller in unknown lands, some new point had been reached, some new way discovered.

Over and over again, some bold adventurer died before his work was done; but as fast as one brave sailor or soldier fell a victim to the dangers of the sea, to the spears and arrows of savage tribes, or to the deadly fevers and diseases which sprang from the swamps of North America, the jungles of India, and the African sands, another was found to take his place. Every country in Europe sent its bravest. **Spain** and **Portugal** led the way. The **Dutch** followed in their footsteps.

Later on, **English** seamen took the lead. In 1486, the year in which Lambert Simnel headed his rebellion against Henry VII., **Bartholomew Diaz**, a native of Portugal; sailing to the South, reached the Cape of Good Hope. Six years later (1492) a still greater man sailed across the Atlantic Ocean. It was in that year that **Christopher Columbus**, the Genoese, first sighted **North America**, and brought to Europe the tidings of that *New World* that has become so great and important in our own days.

In 1497 another Portuguese sailor, **Vasco da Gama**, passed the Cape of Good Hope and sailed into the Indian Ocean; and while he sailed to the *East*, others were following Columbus to the *West*. Let us look at the map of America. In North America we see the great gulf which runs far back into the country which is now called **Canada**. It is called the **Gulf of St. Lawrence**. In South America we see an enormous country bearing the name of **Brazil**. It was in the year 1500, in the reign of Henry VII., King of England, that **Corte Real**, a Portuguese, first sailed into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and **Pedro Cabral** discovered Brazil. At the same time (1496 to 1502) **Sebastian Cabot**, a Bristol man, whose father was a Venetian, discovered **Newfoundland**.

If we look at the map of India nowadays, we shall see that nearly all of it is marked as forming part of the British Empire, but there are still one or two places which belong to other countries. Among them is the small State of **Goa**. If we look under the name **Goa** in the map, we may see, written in small letters, the word *Portuguese*.

It was in the first year of the reign of Henry VIII. that the Portuguese took Goa, which has belonged to them ever since.

Now let us turn back once more to the map of America. At the foot of the map the continent of South America comes down to a point. This point is called **Patagonia**, a country inhabited by men so tall that ancient travellers brought home stories of a land inhabited by giants. At the end of Patagonia there lies still farther to the south an island, which is called **Tierra del Fuego**, or, the *Land of Fire*. Between the mainland and the island there runs a narrow arm of the sea, or strait. It was through this strait that **Ferdinand Magellan**, the Portuguese, first sailed in the year 1520; and to this day the **Strait of Magellan** bears his name.

Passing through the straits, he kept on his way through unknown seas, until at last, in the year 1522, after a voyage of one thousand one hundred and fifty-four days, he came back to Europe, having sailed round the world. In 1521, the same year in which Henry VIII. won from the Pope his title of "Defender of the Faith," **Hernan Cortez**, a valiant Spaniard, conquered the rich country of **Mexico**. Eight years later, another great Spanish soldier, **Francis Pizarro**, invaded **Peru**.

Nor was it the soldiers, the sailors, and the adventurers only who helped to roll back the clouds from the unknown parts of the world. Missionaries soon began to go forth to the farthest ends of the world, longing to teach the heathen the story of Christ, and ready, if need be, to give up their lives for their religion. In 1542, the year in which poor Catharine Howard was beheaded, **Francis Xavier**, a French monk, landed in **India**, and began to teach and preach to the natives.

And while some went south, some went east, and some west; others set their faces towards the north and tried to find a way round the world through the ice and snow of the North Pole. In 1553, the first year of Queen Mary's reign, **Richard Counsellor**, a sea captain, of London, succeeded in passing round the **North Cape** at the top of Norway, and sailing into the **White Sea** in Russia, the sea on which Archangel now stands; while in 1576 another great English captain, **Martin Frobisher**, a Devonshire man, set out to find the North-West Passage, or passage round the North American continent, a road which many brave men have tried to find since his day.

England's Part in Rolling Back the Clouds.

"Where shall the watchful sun,
 England, my England,
 Match the master-work you've done,
 England my own?
 When shall he rejoice agen
 Such a breed of mighty men
 As come forward, one to ten,
 To the song on your bugles blown,
 England—
 Down the years on your bugles blown."
 W. E. Henley: "Rhymes and Rhythms."

By this time, the great discoveries had, for the most part, been made, and now it was that Englishmen began in earnest to turn their attention to the new lands of which their fathers had not known the existence. Some went to find a new home, some to trade, some to win new dominions for their queen; others sailed away to hunt for adventures, fully prepared to fight, and sometimes to take what plunder they could from their enemies. **Hawkins, Drake, Frobisher,** and **Raleigh** were the leaders of the English adventurers.

In 1577 **Drake** began his famous journey round the world. He fought the enemy wherever he found them. Every Spaniard was always an enemy, and it is to be feared that most of those who did not fall in with the wishes of Francis Drake were enemies too. In 1580 Drake returned to England rich with the spoil gathered during years of fighting and adventure, with waggon-loads of treasure, and a name that will live for ever in the story of English romance. The name of his ship was the "*Golden Hind*," and the story of those who sailed and fought on this famous vessel is so strange and wonderful, that no Englishmen ought ever to forget the name of Sir Francis Drake and the "*Golden Hind*."

Nor should the names of our English sea-captains be forgotten in another great country in which English is spoken, namely **The United States of America**. It was Drake who first travelled through the most beautiful and the richest of all the States, the State of **California**. It was **Humphrey Gilbert** who first planted a colony of Englishmen in a new State, which he called, after the virgin Queen of England,

Virginia. Our own countrymen in North America have therefore good reason to remember the "*Sea-dogs*" of Queen Elizabeth's time.

It was in 1583, in the twenty-fifth year of her reign, that Queen Elizabeth first declared herself to be the sovereign of the *New Found Land*, and the colony of **Newfoundland** is, to this day, proud of being the oldest colony in the British Empire. Two years later, **John Davis**, exploring in North America, passed through the strait which separates Greenland from North America, and gave it the name of **Davis Strait**.

And while the great English nations of America were thus growing up, the power of England in another part of the world was just beginning, like a little seed, to spring above the ground. It was in the last years of the reign of Queen Elizabeth (1600) that a *Company* was formed to trade in the East, and settlements, or *Factories* as they were called, were first set up on the coast of **Malabar**.

The Company was called the **East India Company**. At first it was weak, scarcely able to protect its life from the power of Spain, Portugal, and France. As year by year it grew in power, year by year the territory over which it ruled became larger, till at last, from a little seed, it grew to be a great tree which overshadowed the whole land; and first Spain, then Portugal, and, last of all, France, had to yield to the masters of India, the **English East India Company**.

At the present day the Queen of England rules over 288,000,000 subjects in the great peninsula of **India**,



STATUE OF DRAKE ON PLYMOUTH HOE.

Things "New" or "Old"?

*"Unnumbered treasures open at once, and here
The various offerings of the world appear."—Pope.*

We have seen how, during the hundred and eighteen years between the accession of Henry VII. and the death of Queen Elizabeth, the world seemed to be doubled in size for Englishmen. Lands which no Englishmen had ever heard of, or ever visited, were made known through the reports of travellers from all the nations of Europe. The great continent of **America** was discovered, new lands in **Africa** and **Asia** became known to the people of Europe, while even the far-off coast of **Australia** was for the first time marked upon our maps.

But Englishmen who stayed at home soon began to know something more about the new countries than even the travellers who returned safely from their distant shores could tell them. It was a strange and wonderful thing for a citizen of London, or for some country squire in Yorkshire or Devonshire, to hear that Drake had crossed the Atlantic and fought fierce battles with strange enemies, or to gather from big books printed in Holland that Dutch sailors had found lands bright with flowers and rich with treasure in the distant seas beyond India.

These accounts of battles and adventures thousands of miles from home, the news of which only reached Europe years after they had taken place, must have seemed almost like fairy tales to most Englishmen. But it was not till they began to see with their own eyes the treasures which these newly-discovered lands afforded, that they began to understand what a difference the voyages of these bold sailors were going to make to the Old Country. Not only did the world itself seem to have doubled, but the things in it seemed to have doubled also. It is strange to think how many things there are which we use every day, and which we are accustomed to look upon as things which we could not possibly get on without, which first became known in England during the Tudor period.

Here is a table piled up with objects which are very well known to us all. Let us see what they are. First we have a plate of **potatoes**, the commonest of our vegetables. We are not all smokers, but there are very few of us who are not familiar with the look of the **pipes**, **cigars**, and **tobacco** which lie on the table. The potato is not the only common vegetable which we perceive,



SOME "THINGS NEW AND OLD."

There is a bundle of **asparagus**, a fine head of **cauliflower**, a couple of **artichokes**; there are two fruits which we all know very well, the **orange**, of which so many millions are sold in shops and in the streets, and the **cherry**, whose red and white bunches we can see in summer-time in almost any garden throughout the length and breadth of England. And lastly, there is a pot of those bright **tulips** which make our spring gardens so gay. What are we to call all these things? Are we to speak of them as "things new" or "things old"? Certainly, we who live in the reign of Queen Victoria can speak of them as things which are old enough to go back far beyond the memory of anyone which is now living.

Who would think it possible that English people, and more especially Irish people, could ever get on without potatoes? How would our smokers get on without their pipe or their cigar? And yet we have only to go back to the days of Queen Elizabeth to come to a time when all the things which are represented in the picture were things which were very new, and which the English people were beginning to use for the first time in English history.

It was **Sir Walter Raleigh** who brought the **potato** and **tobacco** from North America in the year 1592. It seems strange that the world ever got on without potatoes and tobacco. The crop of potatoes in the United Kingdom for a single year was no less than 5,633,000 tons, and 3,000,000 tons were brought into the country from abroad. In the same period a tax was paid on no less than 63,765,000 pounds of tobacco; and yet before the reign of Queen Elizabeth the people of England and Ireland did not know the taste of a potato, and had never even heard of smoking tobacco. It was in the year 1548—the year in which the Reformation began in England—that **orange trees** were first brought into Portugal from China; and from Portugal the trees spread through Spain, France, and Italy.

The year (1540) in which Thomas Cromwell had his head cut off, and in which Henry VIII. married Catharine Howard, was the year in which **cherry trees** were first brought over from Holland and planted in England; and some forty years later (1578) **tulip bulbs** were brought over from the same country, and planted in English gardens. The **artichoke** we also owe to the Dutch. The **asparagus** and **cauliflower** came to us in the last year of Queen Elizabeth's reign; the former from Asia, and the latter from the island of Cyprus.

It was not till after the death of Queen Elizabeth that we first hear of two other articles being brought into England, which are perhaps even more familiar to us than potatoes and tobacco. Queen Elizabeth had neither **tea** nor **coffee** for her breakfast, and for the best reason.

Tea and coffee were not known in England till more than fifty years after her death; and her Majesty, and those of her Majesty's subjects who could afford it, were obliged to put up with a flagon of ale at breakfast if they did not care to drink cold water.



CHAPTER XLIX.

LITERATURE AND ART IN THE TUDOR PERIOD.

The Open Bible.

"Thy word is a lamp unto my feet, and a light unto my path."

Psalm cxix. 105.

EVERY man and woman in the world, rich or poor, must eat and drink; and so, perhaps, in one sense it may be said, that more people are interested in eating and drinking than in anything else. It is therefore fair to speak about potatoes, cherries, and so on, before we come to the subject of books, of pictures, or other matters, which, though they interest many people, do not interest all the world.

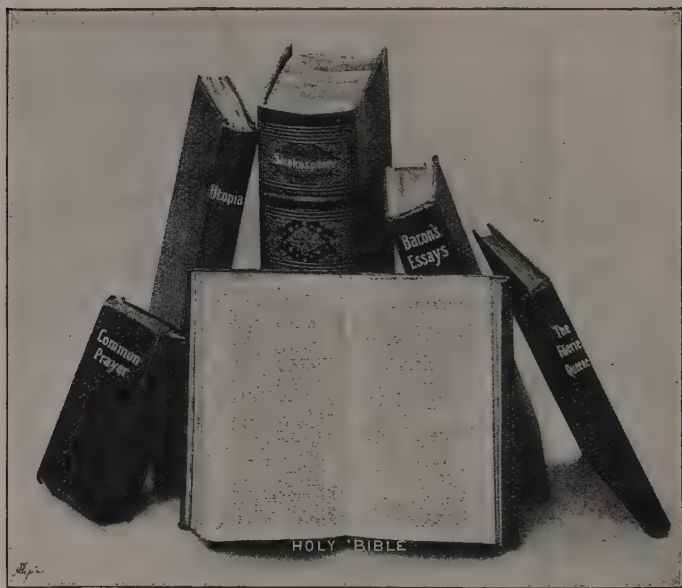
But it would be a very poor sort of a life which was made up only of eating and drinking, smoking and sleeping; and if the "hundred years of the Tudor period" had added nothing to our treasures except a few luxuries for the larder or the table, it would not be necessary for us to study it with great care, or to be particularly thankful to our forefathers who lived under Henry VIII. or Queen Elizabeth.

But happily there are very few people in England, whether they be young or old, rich or poor, who do not give up some of their time to books, and who have not learnt something through what is written in books. There are few who at one time or another in their lives have not seen or admired some beautiful picture, or some stately building, or who have not read or heard some poem which has pleased or moved them.

In the next few pages we shall see some pictures which will help to remind us that we who live in England now, who are fond of reading, who love beautiful pictures, and who care for beautiful poetry, owe a great deal to those who lived in the Tudor period. Nay more, we shall learn that many Englishmen who read little, or

not at all, and who do not know a line of poetry, are still, without themselves being aware of it, using words and uttering thoughts which have as certainly come down to them from the days of Henry or Elizabeth as have the potatoes and tobacco which Raleigh discovered, and with which they are so familiar.

Here is one of these pictures which help to tell this story. What does the picture show? Half a dozen books upon a table, that



SOME FAMOUS BOOKS OF TUDOR TIMES.

is all. Yes, but what are these books? Let us see if we can read their titles. There is one book whose name is familiar to all. It is the **Bible**, and note that it is lying open for every man to read. It is to the reign of King Henry VIII. that we owe the open Bible. As far back as the time of Richard II. **Wycliffe** had translated the Bible, but very few copies of the book had been made, and the priests had forbidden men to read the Bible in the English tongue.

In 1526, three years before the fall of Wolsey, **William Tyndall**, a scholar of Oxford, translated the New Testament into English, and

had it printed abroad. Some copies were brought over to England, but they were burnt by order of the bishops. Four years later Tyndall translated a great part of the Old Testament, but he was not allowed to finish his work, for he was thrown into prison at Antwerp, in Belgium, and was there put to death by the Emperor Charles V. (1536).

Luckily another Englishman had been at work on the same task as Tyndall. **Miles Coverdale** brought out a translation of the Bible the year before Tyndall's death. It was first printed abroad, and then in England. Two years after it came out King Henry VIII. gave permission for the book to be freely printed and read, and in that year (1537) it first became lawful for Englishmen to read the Bible in English. Three years later a royal order was made that the English Bible should be read in all the churches throughout the land,¹ and though attempts were made from time to time to stop the reading of the book, from that time to this not a day has passed on which the Bible, written in a language which every Englishman can understand, has not been read aloud in some English church.

The Bible of Henry VIII.'s time was not exactly the same as that which we use now. The one which is generally used at the present time is that which was translated in the time of **James I.**, who came to the throne on the death of Queen Elizabeth, just after the Tudor period. But the great thing we have to remember is that it was in the time of Henry VIII. that Englishmen were first freely allowed to read the Bible in their own tongue.

Now let us look at some of the other books upon the table in the picture. There is a small book standing up near the Bible. On it are written the words "**Common Prayer.**" This is the **Prayer Book**, or **Book of Common Prayer**, which is used by a great number of people at the present day. The Book of Common Prayer comes to us, like the open Bible, from the Tudor period. The first Prayer Book was printed in the time of **Edward VI.** (1549).

A second copy, in which some things had been altered came out three years later. The Prayer Book of Edward VI. is not exactly the same as that which is used now, for a hundred years later, in the reign of **Charles II.** (1662), some further changes were made, and it is the book as it was altered in Charles II.'s time which is now used. But it is true to say that the English Prayer Book really comes from the time of Edward VI.

It must not be supposed, however, that what is in the Prayer

¹ The Bible which was ordered to be read in all churches was called "Cranmer's Bible," and had been prepared under the direction of Archbishop Cranmer.

Book was written for the first time in Edward VI.'s day, nor must we imagine that the English people had been without a Prayer Book up to that time. But the Prayer Book which English people had used had been written in Latin, and a great part of this Latin book was translated into English by those whom Edward VI. appointed to do the work.

The **Psalms of David** were translated from Latin into English, and many of the prayers which are to be found in the Prayer Book are translated from Latin prayers which had been used by Christians in all countries and in all ages, and which are still used by them throughout the world. It is very fortunate for us that these things were translated from Latin into English in the Tudor period, for there can be no doubt that those who did the work at that time were able to write simple and beautiful English.

Shakespeare.

"Soul of the age!

Th' applause! delight! the wonder of our stage!

My Shakespeare rise!

* * * * *

Thou art a monument, without a tomb,

And art alive still, while thy book doth live,

And we have wits to read, and praise to give."

Ben Jonson: "To the Memory of Shakespeare."

Now look at the name on the back of the large thick book. It is a name which everybody knows. It is the single word **Shakespeare**. Shakespeare, one of the greatest writers that ever lived, was born and wrote during the Tudor period. Wherever the English language is spoken, and English books are read, the name and the writings of **William Shakespeare** are known. It is strange to think that though the name and the writings of William Shakespeare are familiar to all the world, we really know very little about the great writer himself. There are some things, however, which we do know, and which must be told here.

William Shakespeare was born in the year 1564, at **Stratford-upon-Avon**, in Warwickshire. He was the son of John and Mary Shakespeare. It is not known exactly what was the occupation of his



ANNE HATHAWAY'S COTTAGE.
('rom a photograph by Harvey Barton, Bristol.)

father, but it is plain that he held a good position among his fellow-townsmen, for at various times he was appointed Alderman and High Bailiff of Stratford. Little is known of William Shakespeare himself. It is probable that he was sent to school at the Stratford Grammar School. It is clear that he must have received a good education, and, like most boys of the time, he doubtless acquired some knowledge of Latin. In 1582, in his nineteenth year, he married **Anne**, daughter of **John Hathaway**, living at Shottery, a village within a mile of Stratford.

Five years after his marriage he left Stratford for London. It appears that all this time he was in difficulties for want of money, and many stories are told of the shifts to which the great poet was put to earn a living. According to one account he picked up a few pence by holding the horses at the theatre door, and is even said to have been a call-boy, whose duty it was to inform the actors when it was their turn to go out on the stage. Whatever be doubtful, it is, however, certain that between 1588 and 1589 he commenced writing his great plays, the first being *Love's Labour's Lost*.

This was followed by *Romeo and Juliet*, *The Merchant of Venice*, and many others. *Hamlet* appeared in 1602, when Shakespeare was thirty-eight years old. The last play is said to have been *The Tempest*, written in 1610, when James I. was king.

Of the poet's later life we know some facts with certainty. In 1597, at the age of thirty-three, he returned to Stratford and bought the principal house there, which he called "New Place." At New Place he lived until his death in 1616. He was buried in Holy Trinity Church, Stratford, where his monument is still to be seen. Although Shakespeare had three children, his family soon died out, and none of his descendants are living at the present day.

This is, indeed, but a short account of the life of a very great man. But if we do not know much about Shakespeare himself, it will be only our own fault if we do not know a great deal about the wonderful plays which he wrote, *Hamlet*, *Henry V.*, *Julius Cæsar*, *Macbeth*, *Othello*, and many others. It is no use talking much about these plays here; all English men and English women ought to read them. But there are one or two things about them which should be said even in a short history of England such as this.

It is probably true that ten Englishmen use the words of Shakespeare for every one who has read his plays. This may seem strange at first, but the fact is easily explained. The plays of Shakespeare have been read, repeated, or acted by so many millions of English-speaking people since the time when they were written, that

the very phrases which they contain have become part of the English language. Shakespeare said so many things well, and put so many good thoughts into such good words, that those who came after him have found no better way of saying the same things, and have been content to use just the words which Shakespeare himself used.

Scarcely a day passes without our using some phrase or sentence taken from Shakespeare, and very often we do not know that the words which we use have really come to us from the great poet of Queen Elizabeth's time.

There is only one book which English people quote from more often than from Shakespeare, and that is **The Bible**; and these two books, the **Bible** and **Shakespeare**, have helped to make it certain that as long as the English language is spoken, the words and expressions of Queen Elizabeth's time will not be forgotten.¹

Here are some common phrases of our English speech which we owe to William Shakespeare. Some of them, perhaps, were phrases which were known before Shakespeare's time, but it is because Shakespeare used them, and put them into his plays, that they have now become part of the everyday language of Englishmen. "*What's in a name?*" "*Conscience makes cowards of us all,*" "*All that glitters is not gold,*" "*Trifles light as air,*" "*A pound of flesh,*" "*To be or not to be?*" "*A sea of troubles,*" "*Patience on a monument,*" "*Love's labour lost,*" "*Much ado about nothing,*" "*Sweet are the uses of adversity,*" and many others.

And in the same way many words, thoughts, and sentences out of the Bible have become part of the common speech of all Englishmen, even of those who never read the Bible. For instance: "*The labourer is worthy of his hire,*" "*Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof,*" "*Darkness which may be felt,*" "*Making bricks without straw,*" "*Spare the rod and spoil the child,*" "*Job's comforter,*" "*The patience of Job,*" "*Casting pearls before swine,*" "*To escape by the skin of the teeth,*" "*A good Samaritan,*" "*The Prodigal Son,*" "*The widow's mite,*" and "*A talent.*"

¹ The authorised version of the Bible was first printed in 1611, eight years after the death of Queen Elizabeth, but the language is the language of the last half of the Tudor period.

“Nowhere.”

“For I dipped into the future, far as human eye can see,
Saw the vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be.”

Tennyson: “Locksley Hall.”

We have not come to the end of the books on the table in our picture. One of them is called *The Faerie Queene*. “The Faerie Queene” is a very famous English poem. It was written by **Edmund Spenser** (b. 1553, d. 1599), who wrote in the time of Queen Elizabeth. The poem is in twenty-four chapters or “cantos.” It describes the adventures of a brave knight called the “Red Cross Knight,” and of a beautiful maiden called “Una.” The poem is really an *allegory*—that is to say, a story which is not only interesting in itself, but which has a hidden meaning in it.

The story of the “Red Cross Knight” and Una is intended to teach us to love truth and goodness, and to hate falsehood and evil. Many of those who have not read Spenser’s “Faerie Queene,” have read the *Pilgrim’s Progress*. The “Pilgrim’s Progress” is also an allegory, and those who have read it will easily understand what is meant by the word.

Then there is another small book on the table called “*Bacon’s Essays*.” These are the writings of the famous **Francis Bacon** (b. 1561, d. 1626), who is often called Lord Bacon.¹

These **Essays** are very celebrated. In the first place, because Francis Bacon, who wrote them, was one of the greatest and cleverest men of his time, and, indeed, one of the cleverest Englishmen who ever lived. In the second place, the essays are celebrated because they are so well written, and contain so much wisdom. The essays are short; each is about a different subject. One is an essay on “Truth,” another on “Friendship,” a third on “Gardens,” and so on. They were first written in Latin, but were afterwards re-written by Bacon himself in English. The English in which they are written is wonderfully clear and good.

The little book we have not yet noticed is the one which bears the name “*Utopia*” (1526). **Utopia** was a very famous book at the time it was written. The writer was **Sir Thomas More** (b. 1480, d. 1535), of whom we read in the story of the Reformation. The name “*Utopia*”

¹ Francis Bacon’s real title was “Viscount St. Albans, Baron Verulam.”

is really made up of two Greek words which mean "Nowhere," and the book is an account of a country which did not really exist, but which Sir Thomas More pictured to himself as what he would like England to be.

The chief thing to remember about the "Utopia" is, that the people who were supposed to live in this land of "Nowhere" three hundred years ago, enjoyed many things which were really unknown in any country before the days in which we now live, and some things which even we should like to have, but have not yet got. In "Nowhere" there was a *nine hours' day*; no one was allowed to work more than nine hours out of the twenty-four. It is pleasant to think that we in England have at last got as far as this, and in most mills and factories the hours of work are nine hours only, and already there are many places in which nine hours have been shortened to *eight*.

In "Nowhere" every child had to go to school, and all the teaching was free—the parents had to pay no school fees. It was not till the year 1870 that a law was made giving power to compel all children to go to school, and it was not till the year 1891 that another law was made which gave to every parent the right to send his children to school and to have them taught without paying any school fees. So it has taken us three hundred years to get some of the good things which were enjoyed by the people of "Nowhere."

Unfortunately, we are still behind the people of Utopia in some matters. In Utopia, everyone cared for his neighbour's good, everyone had a clean and healthy house to live in, no one was overworked. It would be a good thing if we could truly say that, in these and many other respects, England in our own day was as happy and well-off as Sir Thomas More's country of Utopia.

Now we have come to the end of the books which stand upon the table, but it must not be supposed that these are all the great and famous books which were written in the Tudor period. There are many other writers, about whom there is not room to tell. There were **Massinger** (b. 1583, d. 1640) and **Ford** (b. 1586, d. 1639), writers of plays, **Ben Jonson** (b. 1574, d. 1637), Poet Laureate—a really great poet; there were **Beaumont** (b. 1584, d. 1616) and **Fletcher** (b. 1576, d. 1625), also very famous play-writers. The works of all these writers have come down to us, and there is much in them which is of great interest and beauty. Perhaps if they had lived at another time we should have known and admired their works even more than we do, but the wonderful genius of Shakespeare shines so brightly that we have come to take less notice of the other play-writers who lived and wrote in his day. Still, if we want to have a real knowledge of the

writers of the Tudor period, we must not forget Beaumont and Fletcher, Massinger and Ford, or, least of all, Ben Jonson—"Rare Ben Jonson" as he has been called.

But enough has been said in this chapter to show that the days of Henry, Edward, and Elizabeth were very rich in great writers, and that some of the most famous books in the English language have come down to us from their times.

Art in the Tudor Period.

"A famous age in modern times for learning in every kind, . . . wherein painting was revived, and poetry flourished, and the Greek language was restored."—Dryden : Preface to "Juvenal."

At page 291 there is a picture of King Henry VIII., and if we turn back to what is said about that picture we shall read that the art of painting portraits began to be practised with great skill and success about King Henry's time.

But it was not only the painting of portraits, but the painting of other pictures, which improved during these years. Some of the most famous painters in the world lived during the Tudor period. The most famous of them were not Englishmen, but some of them lived and painted in England. Many of the pictures which they painted are still to be seen in England, and all their most famous pictures have been copied so often that we in England feel familiar with them although we may never have seen the pictures themselves.

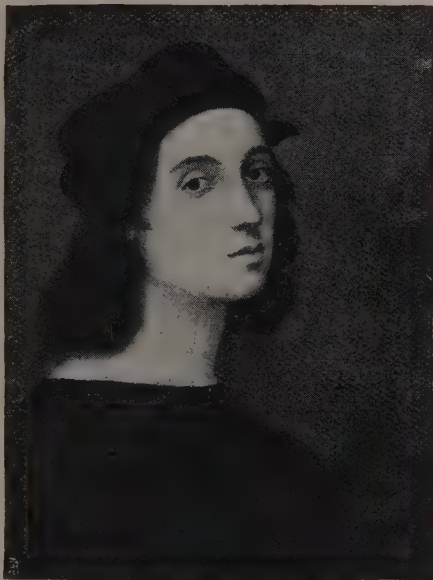
For these reasons it would not be right in a history of England to leave out all account of the great artists of other countries. Besides, we should not fully understand how wonderful a time this Tudor period was, if we were not told that it was celebrated, not only for its great sovereigns and statesmen, its great sailors and explorers, its great preachers and great writers, but also for its great painters. The picture of Henry VIII. at page 291 is copied from a painting by **Hans Holbein** (b. 1494, d. 1543), who was born in Germany, but who lived for many years of his life in England. His paintings are very famous.

Here is a copy of another picture; very likely many of those who read this book will have seen it before. The picture which is here copied was painted by a wonderful Italian artist, whom many people

believe to be the greatest painter that ever lived. His name was **Raphael Sanzio d'Urbino** (b. 1483, d. 1520). **Urbino** was a small town near Florence at which Raphael was born.

The picture has a double interest. In the first place, it is interesting because of its beauty, and because of the fact that it was painted by Raphael about whom we are reading. In the second place, it is of interest because it is a picture of Raphael himself, which he must have drawn from his own reflection in the looking-glass.

There were many other famous painters who lived during the Tudor period, some of whose pictures we can see at this day in the National Gallery in London, or in other great collections of pictures in England and abroad. Among them are **Albert Dürer** (b. 1471, d. 1528), a great German painter and engraver, and **Correggio** (b. 1494, d. 1534) and **Titian** (b. 1477, d. 1576), great Italian painters. The names of others will be found in the list of famous persons given in this book. On page 418 there is one more picture of a great work of art—a statue and



PORTRAIT OF RAPHAEL, BY HIMSELF.
(From a photograph by Alinari, Florence.)

not a painting. It is a copy of a statue by **Michael Angelo** (b. 1474, d. 1564), a native of Florence. Michael Angelo was one of the greatest painters and sculptors that ever lived, and besides being a sculptor and a painter, he was a poet and a musician. The statue, of which we see the picture, is part of a great monument which was carved by Michael Angelo over the tomb of **Lorenzo de' Medici**, the famous Prince of Florence.

There is a story about Michael Angelo which will help us to understand how great an artist he was. When he was a boy of

fourteen years old he was sent to the house of a very famous painter to learn his art. But so clever was the pupil, that instead of having to pay anything to his teachers, he received from them payment in return for the wonderful work he did.

Very little has been told about these great artists in this book,



PORTION OF THE TOMB OF LORENZO, DUKE OF URBINO, BY MICHAEL ANGELO,
IN THE MEDICIS CHAPEL, FLORENCE.

(From a photograph by Alinari, Florence.)

but any of us who care for art, for drawing, for painting, for beautiful pictures and beautiful sculptures, will be certain at one time or another to see and admire paintings or statues by some of them. It will then be useful and pleasant to know something about the time in which these artists lived, and to remember when it was that

they did their work. Some of the best pictures which were painted during the Tudor period can be seen without any payment in the great collection of pictures in the National Gallery in London.



CHAPTER L.

PARLIAMENT—DRESS—DWELLINGS—SCHOOLS—THE CALENDAR.

Parliament in Tudor Times.

"Unstable as water, thou shalt not excel."

"All things by turn and nothing long."

THE history of **Parliament** during the Tudor period is not a very bright one. Parliament was called together several times, but it cannot be said that it did much, or that what it did was of much good to the country, or brought much credit to itself.

The Parliaments of Edward IV. and Richard III. were much braver and more outspoken than those of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth, and after Elizabeth's death Parliament soon became the strongest power in the land. But the Tudor kings and queens were nearly always masters of the House of Commons, and made its members do very much what they commanded them to do. Whenever the king or queen wished to put some great man to death, Parliament was always ready to pass a *Bill of Attainder*, or to declare that the person who had to be got rid of was guilty of *High Treason*. Whichever religion happened to be the stronger, it was always easy to get a Parliament to declare that religion to be the only right and true one.

There was, however, one matter on which even the Tudor Parliaments were very determined; and that was the right to vote, or refuse to vote, money. When Wolsey, at the time of his greatest power, came down to the House of Commons and requested the House to vote £800,000, the members sat silent. Wolsey, angry

and astonished that they should dare to treat him thus, called on a member by name. The member bowed, said nothing, and sat down again.

The cardinal could bear the silence no longer. He told them that he came on a message from the king, and that he expected an answer. At last, **Sir Thomas More**, who was the Speaker, kneeling on one knee, replied "that the House was indeed abashed at the presence of so great a man, but that by their ancient rights they were not bound to give an answer, and that they would talk over the matter when the cardinal had gone." The proud cardinal left them in anger.

A second time he came back and asked them for the vote, and again they refused to speak of the matter while he was there. At length, after a long debate, the House decided to vote, not the sum of £800,000 which the king had asked, but a sum less than half that amount, and payment of this was to be spread over four years. In this way King Henry got a lesson which he did not forget. He found that, when it came to a question of money, Parliament would refuse to obey even his orders. He was very careful in the future not to summon a Parliament oftener than he could help, and he did his best to get money in any way rather than by a vote of the House of Commons.

On one other occasion did Parliament show a spirit of independence, or rather one member was found ready to do so. This was in the time of Queen Elizabeth, when **Peter Wentworth**, a Cornish member, spoke out pretty plainly about the queen's interference with the House of Commons. He declared that the queen had no right to dictate to the House of Commons. He said so in a speech which got him into great trouble. He was put into prison, a Committee of Members was appointed to examine him, and he was finally sent to the Tower. After a month the queen ordered that he should be released, and he was allowed to go back to the House of Commons, where he was compelled to go down on his knees and listen to a lecture from the Speaker.

This, however, did not cure Wentworth of his plain speaking, and on two other occasions he was imprisoned for the same offence—that of speaking his opinion clearly about the queen and her policy, and denying her right to interfere with the House of Commons. It was well that there was one courageous man in the Parliament of Queen Elizabeth who was ready to risk his own comfort and his own life for the independence of Parliament. But until the strong hand of the Tudor kings and queens was removed, the House of Commons

was unable to play a very important part in the affairs of the country. It may, perhaps, be said with truth that the country did not get on very badly, although Parliament was not so powerful as it became afterwards in the reign of the Stuart kings who succeeded the Tudors. It is lucky that though Parliament did so little that was good or useful during all this time, the country grew rich and strong and became respected abroad with very little help from Parliament.

But though the House of Commons did now and then stand firm when it was asked to pay money, it really did very little more than what the king or queen told it to do. It must not be forgotten that the Tudor kings, Henry VII. and Henry VIII., were much richer than the Kings of England who had gone before them. They kept a great deal of the money taken from the great nobles and the monasteries, and thus they were able to spend large sums without having to ask Parliament to vote taxes.

Queen Elizabeth, when she wanted money, found another plan of getting it. She sold to rich people the right to make or to sell all sorts of different things which were much in use at the time. This right to make or to sell a particular thing was called a "*Monopoly*." It is wonderful what a number of these monopolies there were. In return for large sums of money, Elizabeth gave to different people the sole right to sell **salt, currants, iron, gunpowder, vinegar, brandy** (or, as it was then called, *Aqua Vitæ*), **Latin grammars, paper, starch**, and many other things.

Here are some lines which are supposed to give an account of a conversation between two citizens of London about these monopolies. We see that "monopolies" made a real difference to those who had to wear dirty linen and dear boots because of them.

THIRD CITIZEN.

"There is some hope we shall have justice now,
You see how brown this band is; well, my wife
Says that the patent makes all soap so dear
She cannot wash my linen."

FIRST CITIZEN.

"Ay, and on leather
These's a monopoly! These shoes of mine
Cost half a crown too much, and all to feed
Some idle courtier." *Sterling: "Strafford."*

There was one thing which took place in the reign of Henry VII. which was of great importance both to England and to Ireland, a

mention of which must not be left out here. This was the passing of "*Poynings' Act*." Poynings' Act was an Act passed by the Parliament of Ireland in the year 1494, at a time when **Sir Edward Poynings** was Lord-Deputy or Governor of Ireland, and was named after him.

By this Act it was declared that from that time forward all Acts of Parliament passed by the Parliament of England before the year 1494 should have force and be obeyed in Ireland. It further declared that no Parliament should be held in Ireland without the consent of the King of England, and that if an Irish Parliament did pass laws, the King of England might "disallow," or refuse to assent to these laws. If the King of England disallowed an Act passed by the Irish Parliament, the Act had no effect, and no one was bound to obey it.

Thus the Parliament of England, though it did not get power to make laws for Ireland, did get the power to prevent any laws being made in Ireland of which the King of England and his ministers did not approve.

Poynings' Act lasted for three hundred years. It was repealed in the year 1782, in the reign of George III., and for a short time Ireland had a separate Parliament which could make laws which could not be disallowed in the way laid down in Poynings' Act. After the year 1800, the separate Irish Parliament was done away with, and Irish members were sent over to sit in the Parliament of the United Kingdom at Westminster.

Dresses and Houses.

*"I'll be at charge for a looking-glass,
And entertain a score or two of tailors,
To study fashions to adorn my body.
Since I am crept in favour with myself,
I will maintain it with some little cost."*

Shakespeare : "Richard III."

It was the fashion in the Tudor times to spend a great deal of money on dress. Both men and women decked themselves in silks and velvets, and the pictures of the time give us some notion of the gorgeous dresses which were worn. Here is an account of the dress worn by the admiral who went to welcome Anne of Cleves

at Calais. It reminds one of the old nursery rhyme of the famous ship, in which

"The captain wore a chain of gold
Round about his neck."



A "POINTED" WINDOW.

slops³ of the same colour; which Lord Admiral, with low obeisance welcomed her, and so brought her into Calais by the Lantern Gate, where the ships lay in the haven garnished with their banners, pencells,⁴ and flags pleasantly to behold."

The dress of the ladies was as fine as that of the men. Queen Elizabeth set the example of wearing the enormous starched ruffs, or collars, which are to be seen in nearly all the pictures of this time. So great were the sums spent upon dress, that from time

to time the king or the queen issued orders forbidding people to spend more than a certain amount of money upon their dress and



A "PERPENDICULAR" WINDOW.

¹ "Eglets" = "Aiguillettes," or tassels.

² "Baldrick-wise" = in the form of a "baldrick," or belt.

³ "Slops" = breeches.

⁴ "Pencells" = pennants, or small pointed flags.

adornments. But these laws did not do much to prevent people from spending their money. Fashions were then, as they are now, too strong for the law.

If we want to know the kind of dress which was worn by men who were not very rich, we have only to look at the **Bluecoat Boys**, or scholars of Christ's Hospital, in London, who still wear the long blue coat, knee breeches and yellow stockings which were worn by boys at the school when it was founded in 1553.

But although the dresses of the time were rich and costly, some of the commonest articles which we wear now were either unknown or were known for the first time in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The queen was the first among her people to wear silk stockings, a pair of which was presented to her as a great treasure.

While the dresses which people wore became richer and more splendid than before, the houses in which the richer part of the population lived became more spacious, more comfortable, and more durable than ever before. It is the custom to speak of the *Tudor* or *Elizabethan* style of architecture, by which is meant the style in which houses and churches were built during the time of the Tudors.

On page 423 we have pictures of two windows. One of them is what is called a *Pointed* window. All the arches in it go up to a point. It was built a long time before the Tudor period. The other was built in the time of Queen Elizabeth. In it the upright shaft, or *mullion*, of the window goes straight up to the top without forming an arch. This style of building a window is called the *Perpendicular style*, because the mullions of the windows are "perpendicular." This style was adopted soon after the "Black Death," at the beginning of the fifteenth century, perhaps because it was cheaper to build in it than in the older "Pointed style." Some of the most famous buildings in England built in Tudor times, and in the Perpendicular style, are the chapel of King's College, Cambridge, and Hatfield House, the residence of the Marquess of Salisbury in Hertfordshire.





KING'S COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.
(From a photograph by Stearn & Co., Cambridge.)

Colleges and Schools.

"Most Merciful God and Loving Father, we give Thee most humble and hearty thanks for Thy great bounty bestowed upon us of this House, by its especial benefactors . . . humbly beseeching Thee so to bless our honest endeavours that the Church and Commonwealth of this land may be bettered by our studies, and that we ourselves may finally be made partakers of everlasting happiness."—From the Form of Thanksgiving for Founders and Benefactors in one of the Colleges in the University of Oxford.

There is no time in England when more was done for education than the Tudor period. We have already seen how Cardinal Wolsey founded the great college of **Christ Church** in the University of Oxford (1546), and between the years 1485 and 1603 no fewer than thirteen other colleges were founded at Oxford and Cambridge.

Many of our most famous public schools also date from this time. **Winchester**, it is true, is older, for it was founded by **William of Wykeham** in the year 1387. **Eton**, too, which was founded from Winchester, dates from the time of Henry VI. (1440), but **Harrow** (1571), **Rugby** (1567), **Shrewsbury** (1551), **St. Paul's** (1509), **Merchant Taylors'** (1561), **Westminster** (1560), **Christ's Hospital** (1553), are all great Public Schools which began their history in the days of the Tudors.

And all over the country there are ancient *Grammar Schools* which are still doing good and noble work, which were founded under Henry VII., Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary or Elizabeth.

If we were to give the list of all the schools which date from the Tudor period, we should have to print hundreds of names and to mention schools in every county of England. Certainly every scholar ought to be grateful to the Tudor sovereigns for the help they have given to so many generations of English boys.

Unfortunately, in those days not much trouble was taken to start schools for girls. Thus it happened that the boys got the whole of the benefit. Now, however, some of the money which was left to support the boys' schools is very wisely being used to found good schools for girls also, and so English girls will some day, perhaps, have as much reason to be grateful to Queen Bess and her brother, King Edward, as English boys.

Old Style and New Style, or the Change in the Calendar.

*"See the minutes, how they run;
How many make the hour full complete,
How many hours bring about the day,
How many days will finish up the year,
How many years a mortal man may live."*

Shakespeare: "Henry VI.," Part 3.

One very interesting thing happened during Elizabeth's reign which must be mentioned by itself, because it has nothing to do with any of the matters about which we have been reading. It is a thing which ought to interest us now, because it really makes a difference to us who live in the present day. It is the great change in the **Calendar** made by **Pope Gregory XIII.** in the year **1582**. Everybody knows that there are **365 days** in a year, but everybody does not know that besides the 365 days, there are also in every year **5 hours, 48 minutes, and 49 seconds**; that is to say, that the earth takes 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 49 seconds to go round the sun.

Before the time of Gregory it was quite well known that the year was made up of 365 days and something over, but there had been a mistake in reckoning up the exact amount left over. The length of the year had been reckoned as **365 days, 6 hours**. Now between 365 days, 6 hours, which was the wrong time, and 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 49 seconds, which was the right time, there was little difference—only **11 minutes and 11 seconds**.

But if we multiply 11 minutes and 11 seconds several hundred times, we get a big figure in the course of many years; and thus it had come about that the calendar had got seriously "out of order." The 24th of June was no longer the real *Midsummer Day*, and the days did not really begin to get longer after the 21st of December, as they ought to have done. The mistake in Gregory's time had grown to as much as *ten days*.

It was high time, therefore, that this mistake should be corrected, and Gregory did a very wise thing when he issued an order commanding that every country should drop *ten days* out of its reckoning of the year, and begin to date everything ten days later. The Roman Catholic countries which obeyed the Pope did what they were

commanded, and took up the new way of reckoning the year. This new way was called the *New Style*.

England, and some other countries which were at that time unfriendly to the Pope, refused to make the change; and it was not till a hundred and seventy years later, in the year 1751, and in the reign of King George II., that the change was made in England. Thus it happened that for a long time the different countries of Europe kept their calendars in different ways; some, such as **England**, kept to the *Old Style*, which was wrong; while others, such as **Italy**, **France**, and **Spain**, accepted the *New Style*, which was right. For this reason we often find in old books dates given in both the old and the new styles, thus: 3rd September, O.S., 14th September, N.S., 1740.¹ Under the Old Style the year began on the 25th of March, while under the New Style it commences on the 1st of January. This is why, in some English Histories, we find dates given thus, "March 23rd, 16 $\frac{30}{11}$."

In **Russia** at the present day the New Style has not been accepted. There are still some things in England to remind us of the Old-Style calendar. Some people still make a cake for **Twelfth Night**—that is to say, the 6th of January. Twelfth Day is really only the old **Christmas Day**, or 25th of December.

¹ The difference of the time in Gregory's alteration in the Calendar was ten days; at the time of the alteration in England it had increased to eleven days.



PART FIVE. THE STUARTS.

1603—1714.

NOTE.

The hundred and eleven years which followed the death of Queen Elizabeth contain the Stuart period of our history, during which the six sovereigns of the House of Stuart reigned over Great Britain. The period is remarkable as one of great political conflicts, during which the foundations of the Constitutional Monarchy of the United Kingdom were laid.

The Tudor sovereigns had attempted to rule without the aid of Parliament, and they had been in a large measure successful. The power of the Crown in the time of Henry VIII., and of Elizabeth, was immense; that of Parliament was insignificant. Under the Stuarts a great change took place. Weak sovereigns like James I. and Charles I. were unable to follow in the footsteps of Henry and Elizabeth, and they soon found themselves face to face with the opposition of the House of Commons, which grew as the king showed an ever increasing disregard for its powers and its privileges. In the struggle which followed, the Crown was for a moment swept away, and the Commons appeared to be absolutely triumphant. But, as has so often happened, the English people, though ready to accept changes, were not willing that those changes should be very great, or hastily made. The Crown was restored, the king reigned again, but William and Mary, and Anne—the last of the Stuart sovereigns—reigned with powers far more limited than those which were exercised by Elizabeth and claimed by Charles I.

Government by the people through Parliament was not yet secured, but the right of Parliament, and especially of the House of Commons, to take a direct part in the government of the country was acknowledged. It is of this great political struggle between Crown and Parliament, with all its moving and exciting incidents, that we are now to read the story.

CHAPTER LI.

James Stuart, King of England, Scotland, and Ireland.
1603—1625.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF JAMES I.

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| <p>James I. (James VI. of Scotland), son of Mary, Queen of Scots and Henry Darnley, b. 1566, became King of "Great Britain" 1603, d. 1625.</p> <p>Anne of Denmark, daughter of Frederick II., wife of James I., m. 1589, d. 1619.</p> <p>Henry, eldest son of James I. and Anne, b. 1594, d. 1612.</p> <p>Charles, second son of James I. and Anne, b. 1600, afterwards King of England.</p> <p>Elizabeth, daughter of James and Anne, m. Frederick V., Elector Palatine, 1613.</p> <p>Henry IV. of Navarre, King of France, d. 1610.</p> <p>Louis XIII., King of France.</p> <p>Philip III., King of Spain, d. 1621.</p> <p>Philip IV., King of Spain.</p> <p>Rudolf II., Emperor, d. 1612.</p> <p>Matthias, Emperor, d. 1619.</p> <p>Ferdinand II., Emperor.</p> <p>Clement VIII., Pope, d. 1605.</p> <p>Leo XI., Pope, d. 1605.</p> <p>Paul V., Pope, d. 1621.</p> <p>Gregory XV., Pope, d. 1623.</p> <p>Urban VIII., Pope.</p> <p>Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, d. 1612.</p> | <p>Francis Bacon, Viscount St. Albans, Lord Chancellor, d. 1626.</p> <p>Sir Walter Raleigh, executed 1618.</p> <p>George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham.</p> <p>Robert Carr, Viscount Rochester, afterwards Earl of Somerset, d. 1616.</p> <p>Cardinal Richelieu, chief minister of France.</p> <p>Great Writers :—</p> <p>William Shakespeare, d. 1616.</p> <p>Ben Jonson.</p> <p>Francis Bacon, Viscount St. Albans, d. 1626.</p> <p>John Fletcher, d. 1625.</p> <p>Philip Massinger, d. 1640.</p> <p>Francis Beaumont, d. 1616.</p> <p>John Ford, d. 1639.</p> <p>Cervantes (Spaniard), author of "Don Quixote," d. 1616.</p> <p>Inigo Jones, architect.</p> <p>Astronomers :—</p> <p>Galileo, Florentine.</p> <p>Johann Kepler, German.</p> <p>Painters :—</p> <p>Peter Paul Rubens, Flemish.</p> <p>Van Dyck, Flemish.</p> <p>Guido, Italian.</p> |
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PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF JAMES I.

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| <p>1603. Accession of James to the throne of England.</p> <p>1604. Cobham's conspiracy. Trial of Raleigh.</p> <p>1605. Hampton Court Conference held.</p> <p>1606. Gunpowder Plot.</p> <p>1608. Protestant settlement of Ulster.</p> <p>1610. Quebec built by the French.</p> <p>1610. Henry IV. of France assassinated.</p> <p>1611. Robert Carr, Viscount Rochester, becomes minister.</p> <p>1611. The Authorised Version of the Bible completed.</p> <p>1613. English factories set up at Surat, in India.</p> | <p>1615. Lady Arabella Stuart dies.</p> <p>1616. Francis Beaumont, poet, dies.</p> <p>Shakespeare dies.</p> <p>1618. Sir Walter Raleigh executed.</p> <p>Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, becomes the King's favourite and minister.</p> <p>Commencement of the Thirty Years' War.</p> <p>1619. Queen Anne, wife of King James, dies.</p> <p>1620. Seizure of the Palatinate by Spaniards.</p> <p>1621. Bacon disgraced.</p> <p>1623. Prince Charles visits Madrid.</p> <p>1624. War with Spain.</p> <p>1625. James dies.</p> |
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How a Stuart became King of England.

"All the blue bonnets are over the Border."

IN the preceding chapters we have read the story of the *Tudor Period*—the reigns of Henry VII., Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. We now come to what is known as the *Stuart Period*.

The Stuart Period occupies 111 years. It began in 1603, when **James I.** of England came to the throne, and ended in 1714 at the death of **Queen Anne**. The first question that naturally comes to our minds is, "Why are these 111 years called the Stuart Period?" In order to get an answer to this question we must carry our minds back as far as the reign of Henry VII., the first of the Tudors.

We read in the last Part how **Margaret Tudor**,⁽⁵⁵⁾ daughter of Henry VII. and sister of Henry VIII., married James IV.,⁽⁵⁶⁾ King of Scotland, in the year 1502. **James IV.** (who was killed at the battle of Flodden Field) and Margaret had a son, who became James V. of Scotland. James V. had a daughter, whose name is very well known to all who have read the history of England.

This daughter was **Mary, Queen of Scots**,⁽⁵⁹⁾ who was beheaded, by order of Queen Elizabeth, at Fotheringay Castle in the year 1587. Mary, Queen of Scots was married three times. Her second husband was **Henry Darnley**, who was killed by an explosion of gunpowder at Kirk-o'-fields, Edinburgh. The son of Henry Darnley and Mary, Queen of Scots was called **James**, and became King of Scotland under the title of **James VI.** Now James VI., King of Scotland, bore for his family-name the name of *Stuart*. The sovereigns of Scotland had belonged to the Stuart family ever since the time of Robert Stuart (1371).

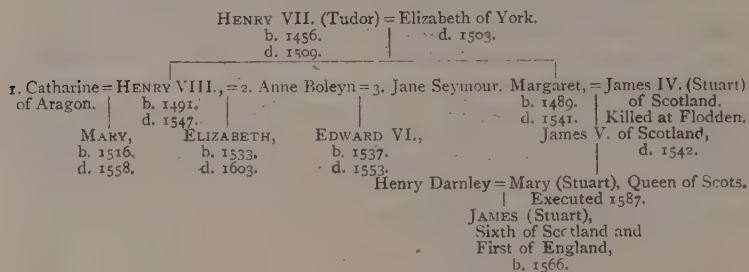
We have now learnt that James VI. of Scotland was a *Stuart*, and that he was descended from **Margaret Tudor**. We have still to learn how it was that the name of Stuart came to be as well known in the history of England as it had been hitherto in the history of Scotland. If we turn back to the reign of Henry VII. (see p. 284), we shall find an account of the marriage between Margaret Tudor and James IV. of Scotland, and we shall read the following passage:—"When Margaret and James were married, some of Henry VII.'s friends said to him: 'What will happen if your sons die, or if they have no children? Will not the children of the King and Queen of Scotland have a right to the throne of England?'" Those who asked this question did not speak without good reason, for what they feared might happen did actually take place.

Henry VII.'s son, Henry VIII., came to the throne on the death of his father, and Henry VIII.'s three children—**Edward VI.**,⁽⁶³⁾ **Mary**,⁽⁶¹⁾ and **Elizabeth**⁽⁶²⁾—all reigned in England, but neither Edward, nor Mary, nor Elizabeth left any children; and thus it came about that on the death of Queen Elizabeth in 1603 the next heir to the crown of England was **James Stuart**,⁽⁷⁵⁾ **King of Scotland**, great-grandchild of **Margaret Tudor**. There was no doubt at all about James being the

right heir; and as soon as Elizabeth was dead, everyone in England at once looked to James as their new king.

But when he became King of England James did not cease to be King of Scotland. He was king of the two countries at the same time, and was known across the Border as *James VI., King of Scotland*, and on the English side of the Border as *James I., King of England*. It is the story of what took place during the reign of James Stuart, and of his children and grandchildren, which has now to be told. There were six sovereigns of the line of Stuart—**JAMES I., Charles I., Charles II., James II., Mary, and Anne.**

DESCENT OF THE CROWN FROM HENRY VII. TO JAMES I.



In reading the history of England up to the present time a great deal has been said about the kings and the queens, and what they did and thought. It was right to pay much attention to these things in the earlier part of our history, because the kings and queens were often the most powerful and important persons in the country, and what they did and thought made the greatest possible difference to those who lived under their rule. In the reigns of Henry VIII. and of Queen Elizabeth, it is impossible not to turn our attention first of all to the king or the queen, and to regard him or her as the chief figure in the story of the time.

Now, however, we have come to a period in our history when another great power besides that of the Crown began to make itself felt. This new power was the power of **Parliament**. The history of the Stuart Period is a history of the long and fierce struggle which took place between the king on the one hand, and the Parliament on the other. The king fought to keep his own power and the right to rule the country by his own will. The Parliament fought for the right to prevent the king from governing the country by his own will and against the will of Parliament. In the end Parliament won the day, and made

it part of the fixed and settled law of the land that the king or queen has no right to rule this country without the consent of Parliament.

At the present day the Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is what is called a *Constitutional Government*—that is to say, a Government in which all things are done in accordance with the fixed rule and law of the *Constitution*.¹ Some of the laws and rules of our Constitution were fixed and settled before the Stuart Period, and some have been fixed and settled since its close, but many of the most important rules and laws of the British Constitution were first firmly fixed during this Stuart Period, about which we are now going to read.

The New King and His Subjects.

“Elizabeth died: and the Kingdom passed to one who was, in his own opinion, the greatest master of king-craft who ever lived, but who was, in truth, one of those kings whom God seems to send for the express purpose of hastening revolutions.”—Macaulay.

James was thirty-six years old, and had been King of Scotland thirty-five years, when the news reached him that Queen Elizabeth was dead and that he had become King of England as well as of Scotland. He was, naturally, very pleased to hear the news. Scotland was at that time a poor country, and was still greatly disturbed by the rivalry of the two parties which had fought against each other so fiercely in the reign of Mary, Queen of Scots. England under Elizabeth had become rich and powerful, and there seemed no longer any fear of civil war among the English. James was therefore glad to exchange the palace at Holyrood for the greater splendour of Windsor and St. James's. He came to London in great state, stopping at several places on the way in order to receive the congratulations of his new subjects.

Many of the nobles and chief persons came to meet the king upon his journey, at York, at Newark, and elsewhere. The king, anxious to seem gracious and to please everybody, gave titles right and left to those who were presented to him. From the very first he wished to be thought a gracious king. It is doubtful, however, whether those who saw James were as much struck by his kingly appearance as he wished them to be, and as he, no doubt, thought they were. It is

¹ *Constitutio*, from the Latin *constituere*, to establish—a thing “established” or “constituted.”

said that the king was of ungainly appearance, clumsy in movement, and not very cleanly in his habits; but whatever other people may have thought of the king, the king beyond all doubt thought a great deal of himself. We shall see that James's good opinion of himself soon brought him into trouble.



JAMES I.

(From the mezzotint by J. Smith, after Van Dyck.)

If we go back a long way in English history to the time of the Plantagenets, who reigned before the Tudors, we shall find that the English kings in those days—Henry IV., Henry VI., and Edward IV.—though they had a great deal of power, could not always do as they liked. The great nobles were also very powerful, and were able to interfere with the king and to control his actions. Sometimes, indeed, they were as powerful as the king himself, for we read of the Earl of Warwick being called the “King-Maker,” because it was said that

he had power to make or unmake kings as he chose. Parliament, too, was not without its share of power in those days. The Commons of England had always claimed the right to prevent the king from imposing any taxes upon the country without their consent, and the House of Commons itself often refused to vote money to the king until he promised to remedy the grievances of which they complained.

But during the Wars of the Roses most of the great nobles had been killed in battle, or had lost their lives upon the scaffold; and when the first of the Tudor sovereigns, **Henry VII.**, came to the throne he found no power left in the country strong enough to resist his will,

The great nobles had been killed or had been deprived of their land, and the House of Commons was not yet strong enough to fight alone against a powerful king. And thus it came about that during the reigns of the Tudors the power of the Crown became greater than it had ever been before in our history; and the Tudor kings and queens, being very determined and able men and women, knew how to make the most of the power they had won.

The Doctrine of "Divine Right."

"I will have none of that: I will have one doctrine and one discipline, one religion in substance and in ceremony."—James I. at the Hampton Court Conference.

But it was not only the downfall of the nobles which had given greater power to the Crown. A great change had come over the title by which the King or Queen of England claimed to rule. A strange doctrine had been invented, or, rather, had been brought over to England from other countries in which it had already been preached by kings and by those who flattered them. It is necessary to remember the name of this strange doctrine, because it played a very important part in the history of the Stuart Period. It was called the *Doctrine of "Divine Right,"* and it declared that kings rule over their subjects as a matter of right, and that this right is given to them by God.

It is quite plain that this idea was certain to lead to one result. If it were true that the king reigned, not by the consent of the people, but by a right which the people could not interfere with, then it was evident that the king could do anything he liked, and that he was above all laws which the people or the Parliament, which represented the people, might make. If the king wanted a thing done in one way, and the Parliament and the people wanted it done in another, the king had only to say, "It does not matter to me what your wishes may be, I am a king by Divine Right, and, what I wish must be the law." Then, of course, either the king or the Parliament had to give way.

In the times of the Tudor kings and queens—of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth—there were often disputes between the Crown and the Parliament; but the Crown being strong and Parliament weak, it was Parliament which had to give way. We shall see that when disputes of the same kind broke out in the time of the Stuarts things were altered, and it was not long before Parliament and the people declared

that the king had no Divine Right to rule over them, but that he, like everybody else, must act according to law.

James I., when he came from Scotland, thought that he had only to step into the shoes of Queen Elizabeth and Henry VIII. in order to exercise all the power which they had exercised. He was much mistaken, but it was some time before he found out his mistake. James was a great believer in his Divine Right to rule over the people of England and Scotland; indeed, he was never so happy as when he was laying down the law for his subjects.

The first thing that occupied his attention was the difference of religion which he found existing in England. At that time there were three great parties in England. There were the friends of the Protestant Reformed Church as fixed by law, which was called *The Established Church*; there were the *Roman Catholics*; and, lastly, there were those Protestants who thought that the Reformation had not gone far enough, and who, though they were great enemies to the Roman Catholics, were also enemies to the Protestant Church as fixed by law. This party was called the *Puritan* party, and we have already read something about it in the story of Queen Elizabeth.

During the last years of Queen Elizabeth's reign the Puritans had increased in number and in influence. This was not wonderful. When Queen Elizabeth and her counsellors had settled once for all that the Protestant religion must take the place of the Roman Catholic in England, they had not been content to declare that all public services held in England should be Protestant services, but they had laid down a great number of rules and regulations declaring exactly what was to be the form of the services and what the bishops and the clergy were to teach.

Unfortunately, they went further, and they set to work to persecute and punish all those, whether they were Roman Catholics or whether they were Puritans, who did not obey the rules and regulations which they made. It is easy to see that in doing this they were forsaking the truth which, as Protestants, they should have been the first to teach—namely, that a man has a right to worship God after his own conscience, and that no one has a right to punish him for doing so.

The Puritans believed that the Protestant Church as it had been set up by Edward VI. and Elizabeth was still too much like the Roman Catholic Church, and many of them refused to obey the orders of the bishops and to attend services in the churches. For their disobedience they had been punished; and just as the persecution of the Protestants by Roman Catholics had made the Protestants stronger than they were before, so the persecution of the Puritans by the Protestant

Church now led to an increase in the influence and the power of the Puritans.

It is necessary to understand something about the division between these three parties at the time when James I. became king, or otherwise we should not be able to follow the story of what took place. When the king came to London everyone was very curious to know with which of the three parties he would side. There were some who held that in his heart he favoured the Roman Catholics, and would do his best to strengthen their cause. There were others who thought that he would do all he could to help the Puritans, and this did not seem unlikely. The Protestants in Scotland mostly belonged to a party called the *Presbyterian* party, and the Presbyterians were as a rule more friendly to the Puritans than to the other English Protestants.

But James soon made it quite clear that he intended to side neither with the Roman Catholics nor with the Puritans, but with the bishops and with the

Established Church. He declared that, like Henry VIII., he was the **Head of the Church in England**; and he went further, and declared that no one could lay down the teaching of that Church better than himself. He took part in the disputes between the different parties. He wrote books and he preached sermons.

A great meeting, or "Conference," was held at **Hampton Court**. He ordered the bishops and the leaders of the Puritans to come to the Conference and argue before him; and, when he could not get the best of the argument in any other way, he interrupted the speaker by



ROBERT CECIL, FIRST EARL OF SALISBURY.

(From the portrait by Zuccherò.)

declaring that he was the true and only judge of what was right, and that those who differed from him would do well to keep silence. Having made up his mind which party he would favour, the king was not slow to put in force the laws against all those who differed from that party, whether they were Roman Catholics or Protestants. In consequence, he made enemies on both sides, and we shall see that both sides tried to punish him, though in different ways.

The Beginning of Troubles.

*"For freedom's battle once begun,
Bequeathed by bleeding sire to son,
Though baffled oft, is ever won."—Byron.*

At the very beginning of the reign plots were formed against the king and against his Council, at the head of which was Robert Cecil, son of Elizabeth's famous minister Lord Burleigh. These plots were known as the *Main Plot* and the *Bye Plot*. The chief conspirator was Lord Cobham, and Sir Walter Raleigh was said to be mixed up in the latter plot. It was proved that the conspirators had tried to get the help of Spain to further their objects. Raleigh was found guilty and imprisoned in the Tower, where he remained for many years. The little cell in which he spent so long a time may still be seen in the White Tower, which forms the great central building of the Tower of London.

The discovery of the conspiracy strengthened the position of King James upon the throne, and his support of the bishops and of the Established Church gained him the support and good will of by far the greater number of the Protestants of England. It was not long, however, before he found himself in trouble. He had declared himself to be a *King by Divine Right* and *Head of the Church in England*; he now went further, and thought that he would prove to all the world that not only was he above the law, but that he had a right to do that which was contrary to the law.

In the year 1604 Parliament was called together. The electors of Buckinghamshire elected as their member **Sir Francis Goodwin**. The king disapproved of the election of Goodwin, and declared that he had been wrongly elected. He sent down orders to the county, and caused another member—namely, **Sir John Fortescue**—to be elected instead. Here, then, were two members elected to the House of Commons for the same seat. The question was, which should be

allowed to sit for the county of Buckingham, the king's man or the Commons' man?

The quarrel does not seem very important now, but it should be remembered, because it was the first skirmish in the great battle which was fought in the Stuart times between king and Parliament, and which ended at last in the triumph of Parliament. This first skirmish was a drawn battle. The Commons refused to let Sir John Fortescue take his seat. The king commanded the Commons to admit him. The Commons stuck to their refusal. The king commanded the Commons to confer with the House of Lords. The Commons replied that the matter was their business, and did not concern the House of Lords. The king got angry, and told the Commons that they held all their rights by his royal favour alone. The Commons respectfully replied that this was a mistake, and that the power of making laws lay in the High Court of Parliament, and that they could be made only *by the agreement of the Commons, the accord of the Lords, and the assent of the Sovereign*.

At last, after the quarrel had lasted a long time, it was put an end to by a proposal made by the king that neither Sir Francis Goodwin nor Sir John Fortescue should be member, but that there should be another election. Ever since this time the House of Commons has had the right to settle disputes arising out of the election of its own members.¹

This first quarrel with Parliament having come to an end, a still more serious danger threatened the country. This time it was Parliament itself which was in danger. James and the Church party had made up their minds that both Roman Catholics and Puritans should be punished if they refused to obey the law and to acknowledge the king's title as Head of the Church, and his power, with the consent of Parliament, to fix the form in which services should be held. All those who refused to obey, whether they were Roman Catholics or Puritans, were punished and were persecuted with almost as much bitterness as the Protestants had been in former days by the Roman Catholics.

¹ The right to try petitions was delegated by the House of Commons in 1868 to the judges, and all election petitions are now tried by two judges.

The Pilgrim Fathers.

*"Down to the Plymouth rock, that had been to their feet as a doorstep
Into a world unknown—the corner-stone of a nation!"*

* * * * *

*O strong hearts and true! Not one went back in the 'Mayflower'!
No, not one looked back, who had set his hand to this ploughing!"*

Longfellow: "The Sailing of the 'Mayflower.'"

Some of the Puritans decided to leave England for ever, and to sail away to the New World across the Atlantic, where they thought that they would be safe from persecution. Some of them crossed the Channel, and went to live in Holland; but in Holland they were among foreigners, and though they could not any longer live in England, they longed to be in a land where English law was known and where the English tongue was spoken. They determined at last to find such a land for themselves.

In 1620, sixteen years after the Hampton Court Conference, a party of English Puritans—men, women, and children, to the number of 100—sailed from **Boston**, in Lincolnshire, for North America. The ship they sailed in was called the *Mayflower*. They stopped on their voyage at **Plymouth**, and Plymouth was the last English town which they saw. After a long voyage their little vessel sighted land on the American coast in what is now the State of Massachusetts.

They came to shore, and made a little settlement in the new and strange country. Like good Englishmen, they called their new town after the one they had left in the old country they loved, in spite of the unkindness of its rulers. The town has grown, but it still bears the name which its founders gave it—"Plymouth." The stone on which the sea-worn travellers first set foot in America is still shown with pride by their descendants, the citizens of the State of Massachusetts in the great Republic of the United States. It is called to this day "The Pilgrims' Stone," after those who had made this long pilgrimage in search of freedom.

Those citizens of the United States who can claim to be descended from the Pilgrim Fathers, who landed from the *Mayflower* at Plymouth, in Massachusetts, in the year 1620, are proud of their forefathers. And, indeed, they have reason to be, for the descendants of the Puritans who left England to escape persecution during the days of the Stuarts grew and multiplied in the new land, and to this day form the

best and strongest part of the population of that part of the United States in which they settled, and which they called by the name which they have kept to this day—"The New England States." The New England States are **Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Connecticut.**

Many of the Puritans remained behind, and cherished their anger against the king, in the first place because he had persecuted them and their friends, and in the second place because they thought that he was in his heart friendly to the Roman Catholics. The Puritan party grew stronger and stronger, for at that time by far the greater number of people in England were Protestants, and even those who did not agree with the Puritans in all things were friendly to them on account of their religion. The Roman Catholics were no less angry with the king, who persecuted them, than were the Protestants; and as their party was not very strong in England, but was very strong in Spain and in other foreign countries, they were accustomed to look abroad for help in their struggle against the king.

The Gunpowder Plot.

*"Please to remember the Fifth of November—
Gunpowder, Treason, and Plot."*

In the year 1604 a Roman Catholic gentleman of the name of **Catesby** formed a plot by which he hoped to put an end once for all to the persecution of his friends, and to punish the king and Parliament. Together with a soldier of the name of **Guy Fawkes**, a Yorkshireman, he became the author of the famous "**Gunpowder Plot.**" An empty cellar near to the House of Lords was taken by the conspirators, and a tunnel through the ground was begun, which it was hoped they would be able to get directly under the Houses of Parliament.

By what seemed to the conspirators a stroke of good fortune, the tunnel became unnecessary, for they were soon able to hire another cellar which lay exactly under the House of Lords. In this cellar Catesby and Fawkes collected a number of barrels of gunpowder, their object being, when the proper time came, to blow up the Houses of Parliament, and thus to get rid of their enemies. The plot very nearly succeeded, but, happily, those who had first started it were not content to keep the secret among a few persons only. It was their intention after the explosion to kill or to carry off the members of the Royal

Family, and some of them hoped to make **Arabella Stuart**, ⁽⁷⁶⁾ a relative of James, queen.

But in order to do all these things money was required, and Fawkes and Catesby had therefore to tell their story to several rich Roman Catholics whom they thought they could trust, and from whom they expected to receive help. Among these rich Roman Catholics were **Sir Everard Digby** and **Sir Thomas Tresham**. Now, it is not very hard for one person to keep a secret if he has a great interest in doing so. It is not so easy for two people to keep a secret; but when the secret becomes known to a score of different people, then it is almost certain that before long it will cease to be a secret at all.

And so it was in this case. Several of the conspirators had friends in Parliament, and though each of them was quite willing that other people's friends should be blown up, they were anxious that their own particular friends should escape. Sir Thomas Tresham had a friend in the House of Lords, named **Lord Monteagle**, who had married his sister. We can imagine what must have been the astonishment of Lord Monteagle and his family, as they were sitting at supper on the 26th of October, 1605, when a strange man came suddenly into the room, handed a letter to the page-boy, and disappeared. Still greater was the astonishment when the letter was read out aloud to those assembled. This is what was in it :—

“ My lord, out of the love I bear to some of your friends, I have a care of your preservation, therefore I would advise you, as you tender your life, to devise some excuse to shift your attendance at this Parliament, for God and man hath concurred to punish the wickedness of this time; and think not slightly of this advertisement, but retire to yourself into your country, where you may expect the event in safety; for though there be no appearance of any stir, yet I say they shall receive a terrible blow this Parliament, and yet they shall not see who hurts them. This counsel is not to be contemned, because it may do you good, and can do you no harm, for the danger is passed as soon as you have burnt the letter, and I hope God will give you the grace to make good use of it, to whose holy protection I commend you.”

This was quite enough to arouse suspicion, and suspicion once aroused, it was a short step towards making a thorough search in the Houses of Parliament. Cecil, James's chief minister, to whom the news was brought, acted wisely. Parliament was to meet on the 5th of November. He let the plot go on, and up to the last moment the plotters believed that they had kept their secret. A little after midnight Sir Thomas Knevett, a magistrate of Westminster, and a party

of soldiers, entered the cellar, where Guy Fawkes stood with a dark lantern in his hand ready to light the match which was to explode the gunpowder. He struggled fiercely, but was overpowered and made a prisoner. He was taken to the Tower and put to the torture, in the hope of making him tell the names of his accomplices; but he bravely refused to confess. He was executed February 1st, 1606.

His bravery, however, did not save his companions. One by one



THE ARREST OF GUY FAWKES.

they were discovered and the plot laid bare. Catesby tried to raise a revolt among the Roman Catholics in Worcestershire, and was killed fighting desperately. Sir Everard Digby and several others were taken and executed. It was not wonderful that the people of England should have been shocked and alarmed when they heard the news of the Gunpowder Plot; nor, indeed, was it wonderful that they should have been exceedingly angry with the Roman Catholics, in whose supposed interest the plot had been formed.

The whole of the Protestants, indeed, were furious, and thousands of Roman Catholics suffered who had nothing whatever to do with the plot, and who were as indignant with the conspirators as any Protestant

in the land. For a time, however, the passionate anger of the people would hear no reason, and the laws against the Roman Catholics were made stricter, and were carried out even more harshly, than they had hitherto been.

James Quarrels with the House of Commons.

"Grievances and supply must go hand in hand."

Sir Thomas Wentworth.

But James was no sooner free from one trouble than he fell into another. He had already quarrelled once with Parliament over the election of Sir Francis Goodwin, and now he quarrelled with it again about a much more serious matter. We have seen that James believed that he was a king "by Divine Right," that he was above the law, and that he himself had power to make laws. It was this last claim that brought him into conflict with Parliament. The king had been extravagant in his expenditure; he was constantly in want of money. He tried to get money in many ways, and among others by selling titles of rank to those who cared to buy them. Not a very honourable way of earning a title!

When he had come to the end of all other means, James made up his mind to impose taxes upon the people without consulting Parliament. He declared that he had the right to do this by his "*Prerogative*." It was allowed by all, that by the Constitution of England certain powers belonged to the king, and could be used by him without asking Parliament. Among such powers were those of declaring war and making treaties with other nations. James now said that his "*prerogative*" also gave him the right to increase the Customs duties and to levy taxes. When, however, he came to try to carry out his intentions, he was met by the House of Commons with a very firm resistance. The Commons told him plainly that in trying to raise money without asking Parliament he was breaking the law as laid down in the Charters, and as declared over and over again in the laws and statutes of England.

The struggle between the king and Parliament lasted during the whole reign, but the House of Commons remained firm, and in the end the king was obliged to obey the law and to ask Parliament to vote the money. Parliament was not unwilling to vote the money, but every time it did so it took care first of all to draw up a list of grievances and to get a promise from the king that he would remedy them if the money were given.

During the first half of his reign James had the great advantage of having **Cecil** for his chief minister. He was a very able man, and had power enough over the king to prevent his making great mistakes. In 1612, however—nine years after the accession of the king—**Cecil** died, and from that time forward the king's ministers were unworthy men who sought only their own interests, and who cared little for the welfare of the country. The two best-known of these ministers were

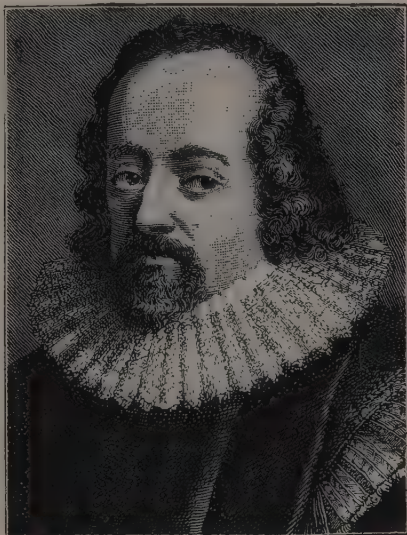
Robert Carr and **George Villiers**. **Robert Carr** was a Scotsman, who was a great favourite with the king, who made him in turn **Viscount Rochester** and **Earl of Somerset**. After the downfall of **Rochester**, **Villiers** took his place in the affections of the king, and became an especial favourite with the king's son, **Charles**. We shall hear more of **Villiers** in the next reign.

It would be impossible to speak about the ministers of King James without saying something about a very distinguished man who served the king in the office of Lord Chancellor, and who ended his life during this reign in shame and disgrace. This was the famous **Francis Bacon**,

about whom we read in the time of Queen Elizabeth. His name is known to all the world as the writer of "**Bacon's Essays**."

He was, perhaps, the cleverest Englishman of his time. He had been appointed Lord Chancellor, and had been given the title of **Viscount St. Albans**. In the quarrel between the king and Parliament, **Bacon** was one of the king's ministers against whom the House of Commons brought the most serious charges. They declared that he had over and over again been guilty of taking bribes, which were offered to him on condition that he would give unjust judgments.

The charges were true, and were proved beyond all doubt. The



FRANCIS BACON, LORD VERULAM.
(From the portrait by Van Somer.)

Chancellor was forced to admit that he was guilty. He was impeached by the House of Commons before the House of Lords. The unhappy man confessed his crime, and threw himself upon the king's mercy. He was sentenced to be imprisoned for life in the Tower, to be dismissed from all his offices, and to pay a fine of £40,000. The king consented to release him from prison, and the fallen Chancellor lived on for a few years at his house near St. Albans. He died in 1626.

The Ancestors of Queen Victoria.

“Let

*The true successors of each royal house,
By God's fair ordinance conjoin together!
And let their heirs (God, if Thy will be so)
Enrich the time to come with smooth-faced peace,
With smiling plenty, and fair prosperous days!”*

Richard III., Act V., Scene 4.

The mention of Prince Charles's name on the preceding page may remind us that hitherto nothing has been said about King James's family; but some of the members of this family played so important a part in our history that they must not be passed over. James himself had married **Anne**, daughter of the King of Denmark.

He had three children—**Henry**,⁽⁷⁰⁾ **Charles**,⁽⁷¹⁾ and **Elizabeth**.⁽⁸¹⁾ **Henry**, **Prince of Wales**, did not live to take any great part in our history. Perhaps it would have been a good thing had he done so, for all writers of his time agree in describing him as a young man of great promise, handsome in figure, courageous, anxious to do good, and beloved of the people. Unluckily, this good prince died of a fever in the year 1612 in the nineteenth year of his age.

His brother **Charles** was a very different character. We need not stop to describe him here, for we shall read more about him, his follies, and his fortunes, when he had become **Charles I.**, *King of England*. We must note, however, that during his father's lifetime a marriage was arranged between him and the **Infanta**, daughter of the King of Spain. Charles, accompanied by Villiers, went to Madrid to pay his court to the lady; but the match was broken off—thanks, some people said, to the misbehaviour of Villiers while he was at the Spanish capital. The failure of the match gave great satisfaction in England, where the Protestants looked with horror upon the idea of a marriage between the Prince of Wales and a Spanish princess. It was then arranged that Charles should marry Princess **Henrietta Maria**.⁽⁸⁰⁾ But this marriage,

which was not so unpopular as that which had first been proposed, was not solemnised until after the death of King James.

The name of **Princess Elizabeth** does not occur very often in the history of England, but there are strong reasons why it should not be forgotten. Elizabeth was married when she was quite a child to **Frederick V.**,⁽⁸²⁾ *the Elector Palatine*,¹ one of the Protestant princes of Germany. At the time of the marriage the bride was seventeen and the bridegroom the same age. The life of Frederick and Elizabeth was a chapter of misfortunes.

In the year 1618 a fierce war between Protestants and Roman Catholics, known as the **Thirty Years' War**, broke out. Frederick took the side of the Protestants, and was chosen **King of Bohemia** by the Protestant princes. But, so far from reigning over his new kingdom, he was driven out of his own dominions by the enemy. All his life long he fought for a crown which he never possessed except in name. Men spoke of him as the "**Snow King**," so quickly did all his claims to royalty melt away.

But though Frederick and Elizabeth never reigned as king and queen themselves, they became the ancestors of one of the greatest sovereigns of the world; for it is from Frederick, the "**Snow King**" and Elizabeth, the daughter of James I., that **Queen Victoria** is



SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

(From the portrait by Zuccherò.)

¹ The Palatinate was the district which lies on the west side of the river Rhine, between the towns of Mannheim and Karlsruhe. The Elector Palatine, or Prince of the Palatinate, was one of the princes of Germany who at that time elected the emperor. There were first seven and afterwards nine electors.

descended. On the following page is a table which will show us how this has come about.

In telling the story of the year 1618 we must not omit to mention one sad event by which it was marked. This was the death of the gallant, but unfortunate, **Sir Walter Raleigh**. Fifteen years before, he had, as we have already seen, been accused of taking part in Lord Cobham's conspiracy. He had been imprisoned in the Tower, and had there passed the weary years, shut off from all the world, in a little cell within the thick walls of the White Tower. While in prison he had made use of his time to write his famous book entitled "The History of the World." In 1617 he was released, and was sent off in command of an expedition to **Guiana**, in South America. It was hoped that he would discover the fabled "*Golden City*," or *El Dorado*, of which many travellers' tales had been told, and which was believed to lie to the south of the great river Orinoco.

But the expedition was a failure. The *Golden City* remained undiscovered, and, what was worse, Raleigh managed to come to blows with the Spaniards, who had already established themselves in South America. England was at that time supposed to be at peace with Spain, and the king especially did not wish to offend the Spaniards. The opportunity was too good a one to be lost by Raleigh's enemies. He was accused of making war upon the king's "dear brother," the King of Spain. He was tried, and though he was not punishable with death for any offence he had committed since his release from the Tower, his old sentence, which had been pronounced upon him fifteen years before, was revived against him, and under that sentence he was condemned to death, and executed on the 29th of October, 1618.

The Translation of the Bible.

"The English version of the Bible remains the noblest example of the English tongue. Its perpetual use made it, from the instant of its appearance, the standard of our language."—J. R. Green: "*History of the English People*."

We have not yet said much about the reign of James I. that is very creditable to the king, or that is very pleasant to look back upon. There were, however, three things which were done during the reign and under the direction of the king which were of great importance in themselves, and which have had the most fortunate consequences for

THE DESCENT OF THE CROWN FROM JAMES I.

TO

QUEEN VICTORIA.

JAMES I., b. 1566, d. 1625.

CHARLES I., b. 1600, executed 1649 = Henrietta Maria of France.

Elizabeth = Frederick, Elector Palatine.

b. 1596,
d. 1602.

CHARLES II., b. 1630. 1. Anne Hyde = James II. = 2. Mary of Modena. | of Orange.

b. 1630,
d. 1714.

Sophia = Ernest, Elector of Hanover.

b. 1630,
d. 1714.

MARY, = WILLIAM OF ORANGE ANNE, | Edward Stuart b. 1650, d. 1702.

b. 1662, (William III.) b. 1665, (The Old Pretender), b. 1688, d. 1766.
d. 1694.

GEORGE I. = Sophia Dorothea of Zell.

b. 1660,
d. 1727.

GEORGE II. = Caroline of Anspach.

b. 1683,
d. 1760.

Charles Edward Stuart, | Henry Stuart
(The Young Pretender), | (Cardinal York),
b. 1720, d. 1788. | b. 1725, d. 1807.

Frederick = Augusta of Saxe-Coburg
Prince of Wales,
b. 1707, d. 1751.

GEORGE III. = Charlotte of

b. 1738, d. 1820. | Mecklenburg-Strelitz.

GEORGE IV. = Caroline of
b. 1762, | Brunswick. | b. 1765, d. 1837.

d. 1830.
Princess Charlotte,
b. 1796, d. 1817.

Edward = Louisa
Duke of Victoria of
Kent, | Saxe-
b. 1767, | Coburg.
d. 1820.

Ernest,
King of Hanover,
b. 1771, d. 1851.

VICTORIA.
b. 1819.

our country. If we turn to the beginning of our Bible we shall find in the Preface the following inscription :—

“TO THE MOST HIGH AND MIGHTY PRINCE

JAMES,

BY THE GRACE OF GOD

KING OF GREAT BRITAIN, FRANCE,¹ AND IRELAND,
DEFENDER OF THE FAITH, &c.,

The Translators of the Bible wish Grace, Mercy, and Peace,
through JESUS CHRIST our Lord.”

What is the history of this inscription? After the Conference at Hampton Court, which has been already mentioned, the king gave orders that a translation of the Bible should be made which should become from that time forward the only translation allowed by law to be used in the churches. The translation was made by forty-seven learned men. The Bible as translated in the time of James I. is the one which is read to this day by nearly everybody who reads the Bible in the English language.

We have reason to be thankful that the Bible was translated just at this time. The scholars who did the work did not perhaps know quite as much Hebrew as some students do now, and there are some passages which might have been more correctly translated if the translators had been more skilful than they were. It is for this reason that in our own day a new version or edition of the Bible has been printed which is called the *Revised Version*, and in which the small errors made by the translators of King James's time have been corrected. But those who did the work of correction took pains to make as little alteration as possible in the actual



ARMS OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF
OXFORD.

words, and in this they acted rightly. In the first place, after nearly three hundred years of daily use by Englishmen of all classes and of all lands, the actual words of King James's Bible have become so familiar to all who speak English that it would have seemed to many millions of people to be losing an old friend if they lost the familiar words of their Bible.

In the second place, it would have been a great mistake to make more alterations than were actually needed, because it would have been scarcely possible to make the language more beautiful than it

¹ The Kings of England at this time still called themselves Kings of France.

is in the Old Version. The time of James I. was the time of **Shakespeare**, and it was just before the time of **Milton**. It was an age when people wrote very simple and yet very clear and beautiful English. One of the best and simplest writers of English that ever lived—namely, **John Bunyan**, the author of the *Pilgrim's Progress*—was born in the year 1628; and among those who made the translation of the Bible in James's time were men who had the same power that Bunyan had of writing noble and simple English.

The Union with Scotland, and the Plantation of Ulster.

*"All your strength is in your union,
All your danger is in discord."*

Longfellow: "Hiawatha."

"It is the sinfulness of the world, to forsake or destitute a Plantation, once in Forwardness: For besides the Dishonour, it is the Guiltiness of Blood, of many Commiserable Persons."—*Bacon's Essays*: No. 33, "Of Plantations," p. 143.

A second event took place in the reign of James I. which deserves to be remembered because of the good results which in the end it led to. This was the union between the crowns of **England** and **Scotland**. We have already seen how it was that the King of Scotland succeeded as a matter of right to the throne of England. This was the first step towards bringing about that real *Union* between England and Scotland which exists at the present day, and which is so great a strength to our country. England and Scotland now form parts of a truly "*United Kingdom*," united at home and united abroad, having one sovereign, one parliament, one army, one navy, and respected throughout the world as parts of one great and united country.

It must not be supposed, however, that the union of the two crowns which followed when James became King of England as well as King of Scotland put an end at once to the jealousy and envy which had so long existed between the two countries. On the contrary, we shall see that battles were still fought between English and Scottish armies, and that there were fierce conflicts between the people of the two countries.

For many years to come Scotland had a Parliament of its own, separate from that of England. The Scottish army was quite independent of the English army; duties were levied upon goods crossing the Border from England into Scotland or from Scotland into

England; Scotsmen were still regarded as foreigners in England, and Englishmen were looked upon in the same light in Scotland.

But the first step towards a real union had been taken, and from that time forward the healing-up of the old enmities between the two countries went on. The Scots became content with the new state of things, for they felt that they had lost neither in honour nor strength. They had given a king to England, instead of England forcing a king

upon them, and what war would never have accomplished was at length brought about by the good will and good sense of the two peoples.

The third thing which was done in the reign of James I., and to which it is possible to look back with pleasure and satisfaction, was the settlement of the north of Ireland by a number of Englishmen and Scotsmen who were sent over by order of the king to occupy and cultivate the lands which had become vacant in the **Province of Ulster**. During the constant fighting and the many insurrections which had taken place in Ireland, many of the Irish had been driven from their lands, or had left them



IRELAND, SHOWING THE PROVINCE OF ULSTER.

to seek their fortunes in some other country.

James believed that peace might be secured, and that the Protestant cause might be strengthened, if he could succeed in raising up a loyal and Protestant population in the north of Ireland, and it was with this object that the new "Colonists" were sent over. This "planting" of English and Scottish families in Ireland is usually spoken of as the "*Plantation of Ulster*." The descendants of the colonists grew and prospered in their new home; and the Protestants of Ulster have always been among the most thriving, industrious, and successful of the inhabitants of Ireland.

We shall learn in a later chapter how in the reign of William III. the Ulster Protestants saved Ireland for the United Kingdom at a

time when a foreign army had become master of a greater part of the island, and how the gallant defence of Londonderry turned the tide of battle in favour of the Protestant cause. At this day not only are the Protestants of Ulster among the most loyal, industrious, and energetic of the inhabitants of the United Kingdom, but it is hardly possible to find any part of the world in which Ulster men have not made their mark by their industry and their energy.

And now we have come to the end of the reign of James I. On the 13th of March, 1625, James was taken ill on his return from hunting. He died on the 27th of March, in the fifty-ninth year of his age and the twenty-third year of his reign.

CHAPTER LII.

CHARLES I.—HOW THE KING ANGERED THE PARLIAMENT.

1625—1630.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES I.

Charles I., King of Great Britain, second son of James I. and Anne of Denmark, b. 1600, became King 1625, executed 1649.

Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, wife of Charles I., b. 1609, m. 1625.

Charles, eldest son of Charles I., b. 1630, afterwards King of England.

Mary, daughter of Charles I., b. 1631.

James, second son of Charles I., b. 1633, afterwards King of England.

Elizabeth, daughter of Charles I., b. 1635, d. 1650.

Henry, youngest son of Charles I., Duke of Gloucester, b. 1640.

Henrietta, daughter of Charles I., b. 1644.

Louis XIII., King of France, d. 1643.

Louis XIV., King of France.

Philip IV., King of Spain.

Ferdinand II., Emperor, d. 1637.

Ferdinand III., Emperor.

William, Prince of Orange, husband of Princess Mary.

Urban VIII., Pope, d. 1644.

Innocent X., Pope.

George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, Charles's favourite, murdered 1628.

William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, executed 1645.

Sir Nicholas Hyde, Chief Justice, d. 1631.

Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, executed 1641.

William Lenthall, Speaker of the Long Parliament.

Oliver Cromwell, afterwards Lord Protector.

John Hampden, d. 1643.

William Prynne.

Alexander Leslie, Earl of Leven, leader of the Covenanters.

Earl of Montrose, leader of the King's Army in Scotland.

General George Monk.

Ferdinand, Lord Fairfax, d. 1647.

Thomas, Lord Fairfax.

Prince Rupert, nephew of Charles I.

Cardinal Richelieu, chief minister of Louis XIII., d. 1642.

Cardinal Mazarin, chief minister of France.

Great Writers:—

John Milton.

Ben Jonson, d. 1637.

Great Painters:—

Peter Paul Rubens, Flemish, d. 1640.

Van Dyck, Flemish, d. 1641.

Guido, North Italian, d. 1642.

Rembrandt, Dutch.

Sir Peter Lely, German.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF CHARLES I.

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1625. Accession of Charles I.
Charles marries Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France.
First Parliament of Charles summoned and dissolved.</p> <p>1626. Impeachment of Buckingham.
Second Parliament of Charles I. summoned and dissolved.
Attempts to levy Ship-money.</p> <p>1627. The city of Boston, U.S.A., built by English emigrants.</p> <p>1628. Third Parliament of Charles I. summoned.
Buckingham murdered by Felton.
Petition of Right agreed to by Charles.
Parliament passes the "Remonstrance."</p> <p>1629. Third Parliament of Charles I. dissolved.
Holles and other members imprisoned.</p> <p>1630. Charles, Prince of Wales, afterwards Charles II., born.
Strafford made chief minister.</p> <p>1632. Gustavus Adolphus killed at the battle of Lützen.</p> <p>1633. Prince James, afterwards James II., born.
Laud made Archbishop of Canterbury.
Prynne put in the pillory.</p> <p>1634. John Hampden resists payment of Ship-money.</p> <p>1638. The Judges decide against Hampden.</p> <p>1640. The fourth Parliament of Charles dissolved.
The Scots enter England.
Meeting of the Long Parliament (Nov. 3).</p> | <p>1640. Impeachment of Strafford and Laud.</p> <p>1641. Act for Triennial Parliaments passed.
Star-Chamber abolished.
Execution of Strafford.</p> <p>1642. Charles attempts to arrest the five members.
Commencement of Civil War. Battle of Edgehill.</p> <p>1643. Royalists' successes in the West of England.
Louis XIV., at the age of five, becomes King of France, Anne of Austria Regent, and Cardinal Mazarin chief minister.</p> <p>1644. Charles summons a Royalist Parliament at Oxford.
Battle of Marston Moor.
The "Self-Denying Ordinance."</p> <p>1645. Battle of Naseby.</p> <p>1646. Charles surrenders to the Scots.</p> <p>1647. Charles, given up by the Scots, is imprisoned, and escapes.
Imprisoned a second time at Carisbrooke.</p> <p>1648. The Scottish Parliament raises an army for the king.
Cromwell defeats the Royalists at Preston.
Charles removed to Hurst Castle.
Colonel Pride "purges the House of Commons."
The Peace of Westphalia ends the Thirty Years' War.</p> <p>1649. Commissioners appointed to try the king.
Charles I. executed.</p> |
|--|---|

Cavaliers and Roundheads.

*"For God, for the Cause, for the Church, for the Laws,
For Charles, King of England, and Prince Rupert of the Rhine."*

Macaulay: "Naseby."

WE are now going to read the story of **Charles I.**,⁽¹⁾ one of the most unfortunate, though not one of the worst, of our kings. The story of his reign may be divided into three parts. The first part contains an account of the long list of faults and errors which the king committed, and of the struggle which he made to set up the kingly power above that of the Parliament and the people. The second part tells how the king, angry at being opposed, tried to reign, without Parliament, as an absolute sovereign. The third part tells how Parliament and people, unable any longer to endure the conduct of the king, rose against him in arms, fought for their liberties, and at last inflicted upon

their sovereign the punishment of death for the crimes which they declared he had committed against the country.

It would be quite impossible to understand the last part of this story unless we had already made ourselves familiar with the first part. The people of England had never learned to hate their kings. At the beginning of King Charles's reign it would never have crossed the mind of any Englishman that England could be governed in any other way than by a king. Even at the very height of the Civil War which took place in this reign, by far the greater number of those who fought against the king had no wish to change the form of government in England, or to get rid of kings altogether.

It is well to remember these things, because they prove to us how many and great must have been the faults which Charles committed

to have driven the English people into open war against him. We shall see that these faults *were* both many and great, and that they were of a kind which Englishmen found it very difficult to forgive or to overlook. It has always been the boast of Englishmen that they *love liberty*, and that they *respect the law*. King Charles was unwise enough to make a fierce attack upon the liberties of Englishmen, and to break the laws which had been passed for the protection of those liberties. He learnt, however, that no man in England, not even if he be a king,



HENRIETTA MARIA

has the right to break the law ; and that if he does break the law he will be punished for doing so.

When Charles became King of England and Scotland, on the death of his father in the year 1625, he was in his twenty-fifth year. He was a handsome and spirited young man, gifted with many good qualities, and popular with his subjects. He had scarcely succeeded to the



CHARLES I.

(From the mezzotint of J. Smith, after Van Dyck.)

throne when he decided to complete the arrangements which had already been set on foot during his father's lifetime for his marriage with the **Princess Henrietta Maria**, sister of Louis XIII., King of France.

The marriage was not very popular in England, for the Princess was a Roman Catholic, and the people would have preferred a Protestant queen ; but a French marriage was thought very much better than the Spanish marriage which had first been talked of. The new queen was a mere child when she was married. She was only fifteen when she left France. She was

welcomed by Charles with sincere pleasure, for she was young, pretty, and attractive, and she was a good wife to Charles during the whole of his troubled life.

We see here a picture of Charles, painted by the famous Dutch artist, Van Dyck, in a later period of the king's reign than that of which we are now speaking. The portrait gives us some idea of the gay costumes which were fashionable at the Court of the Stuarts. The king and his courtiers, indeed, followed the examples set by the nobles

of France, and decked themselves in gorgeous dresses of velvet and satin; their curled locks were allowed to grow down to their shoulders, and the beautiful lace worn by these gaily-clad gentlemen would stir the envy of any lady in the present day. With gay dresses went gay manners and a love of enjoyment which could often only be gratified by great extravagance.

There had been times in English history before the reign of Charles when costumes had been very rich, and when the extravagance of the Court had been very marked, but they were never so rich and so marked as they now became; but while there was one set of people who followed the fashion of gaiety and expense, there was growing up at the same time another set of people—namely, the *Puritans*—who not only did not care for fine dresses and lively amusements, but who actually thought it wrong to dress in any but the most sober manner, and who condemned amusements as a sinful waste of time. Thus it came about that not only were there two parties differing in their opinions, but that those who held these different opinions led very different kinds of lives, and could often be distinguished from each other by their dress and appearance.

We hear much during this reign of the *Cavaliers* on the one side, and of the *Roundheads* on the other. The **Roundheads**, or **Puritans**—with their straight, cropped hair, their sombre dress, and their strict rules of life—were never tired of finding fault with the folly, the extravagance, and the careless lives of the *Cavaliers*. The **Cavaliers**, on the other hand, with their long curled hair, their slashed satin jackets, their fine laces and their feathers, despised the *Roundheads* for their common looks and their dull lives, and declared that not only were they unable to enjoy life themselves, but that they were also determined to prevent anyone else from enjoying it either.

But it must not be supposed for a moment that the whole of the English people were either extravagant *Cavaliers* or sour-looking *Puritans*. Then, as now, by far the greater number of people were quiet, honest men and women who were quite content to enjoy life in their own way, and to let other people do the same. For the most part they would have been glad to keep out of quarrels; and it was not until they believed their liberties, their rights, and their properties were really threatened, that they at last consented to take part on one side or the other.

The Quarrel Grows.

"So much for Buckingham!"—"Richard III."

At the time when Charles came to the throne all Europe was in arms, and Protestants and Roman Catholics were engaged in a fierce war. Charles hardly knew which side to take. The queen was a Roman Catholic, and Charles himself was very anxious to be a good friend to the King of France. On the other hand, the whole feeling of the people of England was in favour of the Protestant cause. Undoubtedly, if Charles had been able to please himself, he would have done nothing to help the Protestants, and he and the Duke of Buckingham, his minister, would have taken sides with the King of France.

But the king was in want of money, and to get money he must go to Parliament. In the year 1625, therefore, Parliament was called together, and the House of Commons were asked to vote the money the king required. They were asked for a million pounds, but they knew very well if they once gave all that was asked of them, they would have lost all power over the king for a long time to come, and would have no chance of getting their grievances redressed. They therefore refused to vote more than £150,000, and they took another step which greatly displeased the king.

It had been the custom, when a king or queen came to the throne, to vote to the new sovereign a grant of "**Tunnage and Poundage**," to which he or she was entitled for their whole lives. "Tunnage and poundage" were taxes levied upon every tun of beer or wine, and upon every pound of merchandise, which was imported into the country. Such payments are now called **Customs Duties**. When once the vote had been passed, the king was always sure of having a considerable sum of money every year without going to the House of Commons to get it; but in the first Parliament of King Charles the House of Commons refused to do what had been done by their predecessors. They declared that they would vote "tunnage and poundage" to the king, but that they would vote it *for one year only, and not for the king's life*. The king was furious; and, rather than take the money on such conditions, he refused it altogether.

Meanwhile an incident had taken place which showed that the House of Commons had good reasons for mistrusting the king. Louis XIII., King of France, was at this time engaged in a civil war with his Protestant subjects, and his army had laid siege to

the strong town of **La Rochelle**, in the west of France, in which the Protestants—or “Huguenots,” as they were called—had taken refuge. Louis’ chief minister was a very great and famous man named **Richelieu**. Richelieu tried to persuade Charles to help him and King Louis against the Huguenots. But Charles did not dare to do this openly, for at that very time his English subjects were most anxious that he should send an expedition to help the Huguenots against Louis. A fleet of eight English ships had been collected in the Channel. It was hoped that it would be sent to relieve the garrison of La Rochelle.

The ships actually started, and had got as far as the French coast when **Admiral Pennington**, who was in command, received orders from the king to take on board French soldiers and sailors, and actually to sail away to La Rochelle to fight not *for* the Huguenots but *against* them. But the king had reckoned without his host, for the captains and crews refused to obey the orders, and Pennington had to sail



GEORGE VILLIERS, DUKE OF BUCKINGHAM.

(After the portrait by Van Dyck.)

back to England. The fleet was once more ordered to sail to Dieppe, and this time Pennington succeeded in handing over the ships to the French, but the sailors, having been compelled by force to go as far as La Rochelle, deserted, and many of them went over to the enemy.

This strange story will show us how great was the difference between king and people, and how little reason Parliament had to trust in the wisdom or honour of the king. Naturally, when a dispute next arose between Charles and the House the feeling on either side was more bitter than it had ever been before. Nor was it long before a new conflict arose. As on the former occasion, it was brought about

by a demand for money, which the Commons would not vote unless their grievances were attended to.

The king, it must be remembered, had refused the "tunnage and poundage" duties altogether, because he could not get them granted for his lifetime; he was, therefore, in very great need of money, and when Parliament met again the first thing they were asked to do was to vote subsidies. The House of Commons were not in a good humour. In the first place, they were angry with the king for having sent English ships to help King Louis, and they declared that he was in reality the friend of the Roman Catholics and the enemy of the Protestants.

In the second place, they were very angry with Buckingham, whom they believed to be the king's adviser in all the actions of which they disapproved, and whom they specially blamed for the part he had taken in the unfortunate expedition to La Rochelle. When, therefore, they were asked to vote the subsidies they were more determined than ever. Their grievances, they said, must be heard and redressed before they would vote a penny. The king saw that nothing could be got without sacrificing Buckingham, and he accordingly at once *dissolved* this his **first Parliament**. Thus we see how King Charles made his first attack upon the liberties of Parliament, and took the first step on the path of despotism—the path which was destined to lead him to so much misfortune.

The King Sets Aside Magna Charta.

"Whatever, by the manifestation of the Royal displeasure, tends to intimidate individual members from proposing, or this House from receiving, debating and passing Bills, tends to prevent even the beginning of every reformation in the State, and utterly destroys the deliberative capacity of Parliament. We, therefore, claim, demand, and insist upon it, as our undoubted right, that no persons shall be deemed proper objects of animadversion by the Crown, in any mode whatever, for the votes which they give, or the propositions which they make, in Parliament."—Burke: *Motion on Speech from the Throne*, 1784.

Now that Parliament was dissolved, the king soon found himself in a difficulty. The government of the country could not be carried on without money, and money had to be got somehow. The king and his ministers thought of two ways of getting it—the one a very dangerous and foolish way, the other a wise one. The first step the king took

was to issue orders under the Great Seal for the payment of money. Those to whom these orders were sent, for the most part, obeyed them, fearing the anger of the king; but they did not forget that in issuing such orders the king was breaking the law laid down in the 12th Article of Magna Charta, which says that—"No scutage or aid shall be imposed in our Kingdom except by the Common Council of the Realm."¹

The feeling in the country was not yet strong enough to resist these illegal demands, but they gave rise to a very bitter spirit, and helped to turn men's minds against the king.

The second method by which Charles tried to get money was a wiser one than that which has just been described. The English people have always been more easy to lead than to drive, and the king, knowing this, thought that if he could carry out some policy which was particularly pleasing to Parliament, he might obtain more from the good will of the House of Commons than he could obtain from its fears. He knew that one of the most popular things which he could do would be to renew the war with Spain, and accordingly an expedition was sent out to Cadiz to try and capture the Spanish treasure-ships coming from South America.

But the expedition was very badly managed, and ended in a complete failure, and thus, when at last, in February, 1626, Charles was compelled to summon his **second Parliament**, he found the Commons in no better humour than before. On the contrary, the very first thing they did was to draw up a fresh list of their grievances, and to the old grievances they now added new ones. They complained bitterly of the ways in which the king had raised money—ways which they declared were altogether illegal. It was hardly wonderful, therefore, that when the king sent a message to the House asking for a vote of money he should have been met at once with the old request that he would *first redress grievances*; and among these grievances it was clear that the continued favour shown to **Buckingham** was one of the most serious.

Then the king did an exceedingly foolish thing. He forgot all his wise intentions of winning the Commons to his side by doing things which would please them, and he began to threaten them. "I will be willing," so ran the king's reply to the Commons—"I will be willing to hear your grievances, as my predecessors have been, so that you will apply yourselves to redress grievances and not to inquire after grievances. I must let you know that I will not let any of my servants be

¹ See also 34 Edward I., cap. 1 (*de Tallagio non concedendo*). "No Tallage or Aid shall be taken or levied by us or our Heirs in our Realm without the good Will and Assent of the Archbishops, Bishops, Earls, Barons, Burgesses, and other Freemen of the Land."

questioned by you : much less such as are of eminent place and near to me. I see you specially aim at the Duke of Buckingham. I would you would hasten for my supply,¹ or else it will be worse for yourselves ; for, if any ill happen, I think I shall be the last to feel it."

It is necessary to remember this answer, for it shows us clearly what an important thing the House of Commons was fighting for. The king declared that Parliament had no right whatever to question any of his servants or ministers. The House of Commons, in the year 1626, declared that this was quite a mistake, and that it was both the *right* and the *duty* of Parliament to inquire into what the king's ministers did, and to punish them if they did wrong.

We know that the view which was then held by the House of Commons is the one which is now admitted by everyone in this country. It is one of the chief rules of our Constitution that *the ministers of the Crown shall always be answerable to Parliament for everything which they do, and for everything which they advise the sovereign to do*. If what is done by the ministers, or by the sovereign on the advice of the ministers, be wrong, then it is on the ministers that the punishment falls. But we shall see that a long and fierce fight was needed before King Charles and those who came to the throne after him would admit that the Parliament had the right to "*question the king's servants*."

The House of Commons replied to the king's threat by impeaching **Buckingham** and bringing serious charges against him, some of which were true, and some of which were false. It did not at all suit the king's purpose to allow the charges to be tried, and once more he got himself out of the difficulty for the moment by dissolving Parliament, but not before the House of Commons had had time to draw up another long list of its grievances.

Charles as an Absolute King.

"*The Right Divine of Kings to govern wrong.*"—*Pope*: "*Dunciad*."

The king had got rid of his troublesome House of Commons for a time, but he had not got his money, and the money had to be obtained somehow. Despite the protest of the Commons, methods which were clearly illegal were once more resorted to. The king declared that the country was in danger of invasion, though no one quite knew who was going to invade it. The threatened invasion was made the excuse

¹ *Supply*.—The sums of money voted by Parliament are called "Supplies."

for extorting money from all sorts of persons who were known to possess it.

Parliament had refused to grant "tunnage and poundage" dues. The king collected them without the consent of Parliament, by orders under the Great Seal. The **seaport towns**, including the **Port of London**, were compelled to furnish ships or the money to pay for ships. The **Roman Catholics** were compelled to pay heavy fines, and were made to serve as soldiers contrary to the law. But this was not all. Not content with breaking the law, the king and his advisers claimed that in doing these illegal acts Charles was doing no more than he had a right to do by his own power and without the assent of Parliament.



ARCHBISHOP LAUD.

There was at this time a party in the Established Church which was always ready to claim as much power and authority for the king as possible. They declared, as King James had declared, that kings ruled by "Divine Right"; that they were appointed by God; and that they were, therefore, not bound to obey the laws made for other people. At the head of this party was **Laud**, Bishop of Bath and Wells, who was afterwards made Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud and others went so far as to say in their sermons that all that the king had done was right, and that those who opposed him were not only bad subjects, but bad Christians also.

It was natural that when men saw the king acting illegally, and when they saw his illegal actions supported by the bishops, they were in the greatest fear for their liberties. It was natural, too, that the Puritans—who had long been opposed to the bishops, and who had suffered much for refusing to obey the rules of the Established Church—should

become the leaders in resisting the king. Indeed, from this time forward, the division between the king's friends on the one side, and the Puritans on the other, became greater from day to day. But the time had not yet come when men were prepared openly to resist the king. Sixteen years were to pass before the quarrel came to the point of open fighting. We shall see that nearly everything Charles did during those sixteen years helped to make the quarrel more bitter.

In the year 1627, the year after the second Parliament had been dissolved, five gentlemen were imprisoned by order of the king for refusing to obey the king's orders to pay money. They declared that, by law, they were not bound to pay the money. They were accordingly sent to gaol without trial, and kept there. But all those who have read the early part of our English history know that, so far back as the year 1215, a law had been made which declared in plain terms that "*No Freeman shall be taken or imprisoned unless by the lawful judgment of his peers or by the law of the land.*" These words are to be found in the **29th Article of Magna Charta**; and it seemed to everyone as if there could be no doubt whatever that the five gentlemen had been imprisoned contrary to law.

The matter was tried before the judges in the Court of King's Bench, and, to the surprise and dismay of all, the Chief Justice **Sir Nicholas Hyde**, declared that the law had not been broken, but that the prisoners, having been arrested by the special order of the king, could not claim either to be let out or to be tried. To many it seemed that the Chief Justice had given a wrong judgment in order to please the king, but to all who loved liberty and the old law of England it seemed that if the Chief Justice were right, and if the law had been truly laid down by him, then it was high time that the law should be altered. What was the good of the 29th Article of Magna Charta if free men could be taken and imprisoned without trial?

The king knew quite well that in acting as he had done he was making himself and his ministers hated by many of his subjects. He therefore tried once more to win back the good will which he had lost, by doing something which he thought would be pleasing to the people, and especially to the Protestants. He accordingly sent a fresh expedition, under Buckingham, to help the Huguenots, but this second expedition, like the first, ended in a total and disgraceful failure.

The Petition of Right: a Storm in the Commons.

"Que Droict soit fait" ("Let right be done").

In March, 1628, Charles was at last forced to call together his **third Parliament**. It seemed as if his pride would never allow him to take a wise step without also compelling him to take a foolish one which undid all the good that his sensible conduct might have effected. Many of those who had been imprisoned contrary to law were released, but at the same time the king could not refrain from threatening the House of Commons in words which only made its members more stubborn and less friendly. As before, the king asked for money, and, as before, the Commons gave the same answer, in the words of **Sir Thomas Wentworth**, one of the members: "*Grievances and supplies should go hand in hand.*" In order that there might be no mistake as to what their chief grievances were, the Commons drew up a petition to the king, which was known as the "**Petition of Right.**" These were the chief points in the Petition of Right:—

(1) *That no man should be compelled to pay money to the king without the consent of Parliament, and that no man be damaged or punished for refusing to pay.*

(2) *That no man should be imprisoned without cause shown.*

(3) *That soldiers and sailors should not be quartered on the people against their will.*

(4) *That in time of peace no one should be punished by martial law—that is to say, by military law.*

The King declined to give a straightforward answer to the petition. He said that everything ought to be done which was just and right, but he took care not to say that the particular things which the House of Commons had asked for should be done. The House was greatly disappointed, and the king seemed no nearer to getting his money than before. Charles, however, discovered that the House of Commons was in earnest. The Speaker came to him and told him what the temper of the members was, and at last, in despair of getting the much-needed money in any other way, the king, on June 7th, 1628, gave orders that the Petition of Right should be acceded to, in the usual words, "*Let right be done.*"¹ The Commons were delighted. The

¹ The answer of the Crown, in accepting or granting terms of a petition, was at that time, and still is, given in the old Norman-French, thus: "*Soit Droict fait comme il est désiré.*"

king had performed his part of the bargain, and they were ready to perform theirs. They voted the required subsidies without hesitation.

Then, however, there arose another difficulty. The king had assented to the Petition of Right, not in the least desiring that right should be done, but because he wanted money. The Commons had compelled the king to sign the petition because they wanted to see the abuses of which they complained done away with. When, however, they came to put the king's promises to the test, they found Charles as obstinate as ever. He had just promised that no man should be compelled to pay taxes without the consent of Parliament, but he now declared that "**tunnage and poundage**" were not taxes, and that he would levy them whether the Commons liked it or not. The House of Commons objected.

This time Charles did not at once *dissolve* Parliament, but he *prorogued* it—that is to say, he dismissed it for a time. It seemed as if the king could never hit on a new plan. Once more, in the hope of pleasing the House of Commons, the Duke of Buckingham was ordered to start off upon an expedition the object of which was to raise the siege of **La Rochelle**, where the Huguenots were being besieged. But this expedition was no less unfortunate than those which had gone before it.

In Portsmouth High Street there is a house which is pointed out as that in which George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, was murdered. Such, indeed, was the fate of Charles's favourite minister. Just as the duke was about to embark with the fleet, he was stabbed to the heart by one of his former officers, named **Felton**, who declared that in committing the crime he believed he was serving the cause of God and of his country.

Unluckily, the death of one bad adviser did not prevent Charles from seeking the counsel of others who were neither wiser nor better. Nothing could induce the king to perform the promises which he had made when he gave his consent to the Petition of Right, and the quarrel with the House of Commons, which had now re-assembled, continued until at last it came to a head. Tired of the opposition he met with, the king sent a message to the Commons to *adjourn*. The Commons declined to adjourn.

On March 2nd, 1629, a second messenger was sent with a similar command. The Speaker, **Sir John Finch**, who was a friend of the Court, was about to read the king's message to the House, but the members had duties which they were determined to perform, and they feared lest Parliament might be dissolved and they might be all sent about their business before they had time to perform them. Two of the



THE "SPEAKER" HELD DOWN IN THE CHAIR.

HMP

boldest of the members, **Denzil Holles** and **Valentine**, stood one on each side of the Speaker's chair, and by main force they held the Speaker down and prevented him from reading the king's message.

The doors were locked. Everyone felt that a solemn and terrible moment had come, and that dangers threatened of which none could see the end. Some openly wept when they saw violence thus used in the House of Commons and when they reflected that such violence was necessary to protect the liberties of the people.

All were deeply moved. With the Speaker held down by main force in his chair, and with the doors locked, the Commons passed resolutions declaring once more their determination to maintain the liberties which had been claimed in the Petition of Right. The king came down to Westminster, and, furious at what he heard, would have battered in the doors of the House of Commons. Happily, this last act of violence was unnecessary. The resolutions were passed, and the House had done its business, and was content to adjourn when the king's messenger arrived.

Charles at once dissolved Parliament (March 10th, 1629), and his first thought was to punish those members who had taken the chief part in the scene which has been described. One of them, **Sir John Eliot**, was fined £2,000, **Holles** was fined a thousand marks, and **Valentine** £500. All the offenders were sent to gaol, and Sir John Eliot died in prison.



CHAPTER LIII.

THE KING DEFIES PARLIAMENT.

1630—1642.

Ship-money.

"From the day on which the Houses met there was a war waged by them against the king—a war for all that they held dear, a war carried on at first by means of Parliamentary forms, at last by physical force."—Macaulay.

WE have now come to the end of the first stage of the great struggle between **King** and **Parliament**. In *five years* Charles had summoned and dissolved Parliament *three times*. Eleven years were now to pass during which no Parliament was summoned, and during which the



PURITANS AND CAVALIERS.

king attempted to rule as an absolute sovereign. To rule as an absolute sovereign, it was, above all things, necessary that Charles should find some strong and determined man to serve him as his minister.

Such a man he found in **Sir Thomas Wentworth**, who up to this time had been not only a member of the House of Commons, but had been one of those members who were foremost in opposing the king. It showed some wisdom on the part of Charles that he was able to choose out Wentworth as a man who could help him if he would, and it showed skill on the king's part to be able to persuade Wentworth to leave his old friends and to come over and join the king's party. This, in fact, Wentworth did; he was made **Lord Wentworth**, and from that day forward to the end of his life faithfully served the king. We shall see how ill Charles repaid him for his faithful service.

There were two great difficulties which the king had to meet and overcome when he set himself to the task of governing England without a Parliament. In the first place, there was the old difficulty of want of money. Money had to be got, and yet it could only be obtained by breaking the law, and every time the law was broken the king made fresh enemies. Then there was the difficult task of satisfying and keeping in order the Puritans.

The Puritan party was growing every day stronger and stronger; those who were opposed to the king and to the bishops on religious grounds were now helped by those who opposed the king and the bishops for political reasons. As it had so often happened before, the moment the king began to persecute and punish the Puritans on account of their religion, the Puritans became stronger and more numerous than before. Those who cared little for the opinions which the Puritans held began to look upon those who held them as men who were unjustly and cruelly treated.

The want of money was the first thing which led to a difficulty. In the year 1634 Charles undertook to help the King of Spain against the Dutch, and promised to supply a certain number of ships for the purpose. The people of England were no friends to the Spaniards, and had no desire to see the Dutch persecuted and defeated. They did not wish to provide ships at all, still less did they wish to pay money for them unless it had been voted by Parliament. But the king declared that by an ancient custom he had the right to compel the payment of "**ship-money**," and, acting under Wentworth's advice, he sent collectors through the country to raise the tax.

It seemed as if Charles had made up his mind to try how completely he could set aside every Article of Magna Charta. He had

already caused men to be imprisoned without a trial; and now he made it clear once more that, despite Magna Charta and despite the Petition of Right, he intended to levy taxes without the consent of Parliament. The attempt led to a trial which has become famous in the history of England.

There was a gentleman named **John Hampden**, member of Parliament for Buckinghamshire. He owned some land at **Stoke Mandeville**, near Aylesbury. The collectors of "ship-money" came to him and told him that he was bound to pay **twenty shillings** in respect of these lands. Hampden declined to pay, and said that it was contrary to law that a tax should be levied without the consent of Parliament, and that Parliament had never consented to the levying of "ship-money."

The point was tried before twelve of the judges, but, unluckily—as in the case of the five members who had been tried before Sir Nicholas Hyde—the judges, or the greater number of them, were on the side of the king and wished to win his favour at any cost. Seven out of the twelve declared that Hampden was in the wrong; and they did what was much more serious—they laid it down as part of the law of England that no Act of Parliament could take away or alter the power of the king, or prevent him from "*commanding the subjects, person, property, and money*" of the people.

This judgment was a terrible blow to Hampden's party in the House of Commons. Once more the people of England had reason to feel that if the law were really what the judges declared it to be, it was high time the law should be altered.

Two Evil Counsellors.

"Thorough."—Motto of the Earl of Strafford.

The king now placed all his reliance upon **Wentworth** and upon **Laud**, whom he had made Archbishop of Canterbury. Both the Archbishop and Wentworth were very able men, and were ready to go great lengths to serve their master; but they showed more zeal than wisdom, and what they did made Charles more disliked and distrusted than he was before. Laud was determined that the laws by which the services in the Established Church were fixed should be strictly carried out, and that every one who broke them should be punished.

The Court of **Star-Chamber**, about which we read in the time of

Henry VII., was made use of to try the offenders, and cruel punishments were inflicted upon those who were brought before the Court. Those who dared to say anything against the bishops and against the form of service used in the Established Church were severely dealt with. **Prynne**, a Puritan lawyer, who was said to have attacked the royal family in a book which he had written, was fined, put in the pillory, had his ears cut off, and was sent to gaol. Many others were tried and imprisoned by the Court of Star-Chamber.

Nor was Laud content to punish those who differed from the bishops. He himself made changes within the Church which many of those who had hitherto been its best friends did not like or think wise. Some believed that he was a friend of the Roman Catholics, and that he was trying to make the Church of England a Roman Catholic Church. But it was not until he was so rash as to try and compel the **Scots** to accept the rules and ceremonies of the Church of England that he actually drove his enemies into civil war. The Archbishop was, no doubt, an honest man, who believed that he did right in trying to make everyone think the same as he did; and two things must be remembered in his favour when we condemn him for what he did or tried to do in England.

In the first place, the law was on his side. The law declared that all services and ceremonies in the country should be of one pattern; and Laud had a right to say, when he punished those who used other forms and ceremonies, that they were breaking the law. In the second place, it must not be forgotten that—though we hear much of the Puritans, and though their leaders have become famous on account of the part they took in opposing the king—the very great majority of the people of England were at this time members of the Protestant Established Church, were contented with its rules and services, and wished to keep the Prayer-Book unaltered.

But when Laud, in an unhappy hour, tried to compel the Scots to give up their own form of religion and to accept from him forms and ceremonies which they hated, he soon found that though he could punish and terrify a few offenders in England he could not either punish or terrify a whole people. The Scottish Presbyterians were furious when the English forms of service were used. In the great church of St. Giles's, at Edinburgh, an incident took place which deserves to be remembered, because the act of one person showed what was in the minds of many. Among the congregation was a woman named **Janet Geddes**. When she heard what she considered a Popish service, and saw the ministers dressed in white surplices, which she looked upon as the dress of the Roman Catholic priests, she could

contain herself no longer. She took up the stool on which she sat (so, at least, runs the story) and threw it at the head of the bishop.

Whether or not it be actually a fact that Janet Geddes threw her stool at the bishop's head, it is undoubtedly a fact that the same spirit which she is said to have shown, was shown in other ways by thousands of the Scottish Presbyterians. They drew up a Declaration, called the "**Solemn League and Covenant**," in which they laid down their views as to how the Church should be governed, and condemned the changes with which they were threatened. In all parts of Scotland men flocked to sign **The Covenant**, and the "*Covenanters*"—as those who signed were called—showed that they were ready, if necessary, to fight for their faith.

An army was quickly raised, and, under the command of General **Alexander Leslie**, marched towards the Border. Charles was at his wits' end. The Scots were in arms, and he had no money to raise troops to put down those whom he looked upon as rebels. A few troops whom he could get together were useless, and ran away before they were attacked. There was but one thing to be done. A truce was made with the Scots, Charles undertaking to pay their expenses as soon as Parliament met; and on April 13th, 1640, the king was forced, much against his will, to assemble his *fourth Parliament*.

This time he hoped and believed that he would get what he wanted. With a Scottish army actually on the Border, he felt sure that the English Parliament would lose no time in doing all that was necessary to defeat and drive back the invaders. He was, however, mistaken; and great must have been his disappointment when the fourth Parliament, like the first and the second and the third, began its proceedings by declaring that before anything else was done their grievances must be remedied.

The king, in his anger, dissolved Parliament on May 5th, after a session of twenty-three days, and once more tried to rule as a despotic sovereign. As before, Charles looked to **Laud** and **Wentworth**, who had now been made **Earl of Strafford**, as his two chief advisers. They showed once more that their advice and actions were more dangerous than helpful to the king. Laud, who had long been hated by the Puritans, now gave bitter offence to all who were supporters of the Parliament by declaring that it was not only contrary to the law but that it was *wicked and a sin against God to resist the king*, whatever he did. Englishmen were indignant when told that they were committing a sin when obeying the law of the land as made by Parliament.

Nor did Strafford succeed any better in winning friends to the king. He had been sent to Ireland as Lord Deputy, or Governor; and acting

on behalf of the king, and with the king's consent, he had governed Ireland as a despot, paying no attention either to Parliament or the law. Strafford's well-known motto was the word "*Thorough*," and whatever he undertook he certainly did *thoroughly*. It is not hard to find excuses for the things which he did in Ireland, for the country was really in a terrible state. The Irish Parliament had no power, and the law was openly disregarded. Strafford was determined that, whatever else happened, order should be restored; and, though the methods by which he governed the country were cruel and despotic, he certainly did succeed in restoring peace and in bringing Ireland once more under the government of the king.

But in order to do this he was compelled to raise and train an army in Ireland, and this proved to be the cause of his downfall. His enemies in England felt that if the king could once obtain the help of a victorious general, with a strong, well-disciplined army, he would soon be able to crush Parliament and to rule as he pleased. They, therefore, looked anxiously for an opportunity to destroy Strafford's power. It was not long before the opportunity came. The Scots still remained in arms upon the Border, and at last actually crossed it and marched into Northumberland and Durham. The king was really at a loss what to do. He had no troops, and could raise none without money.

The Long Parliament.

"Put not thy trust in princes."—Words used by Strafford on hearing that the king had abandoned him.

Once more Charles was compelled to summon Parliament. The *fifth* and *last* Parliament of Charles I. met on November 3rd, 1640. This famous Parliament, known as the "*Long Parliament*," sat for no less than *nineteen* years and four months. It began its life as a powerful and respected body, and it ended its days powerless and despised; but during its existence it did a great work.

The very first thing which the new Parliament did was to make a fierce attack upon the two great enemies of its liberties—**Strafford** and **Laud**. There were two ways in which Parliament might punish a man. The one was to "*Impeach*" him; the other, to bring against him a "*Bill of Attainder*." When a man was *impeached* the House of Commons brought charges against him before the House of Lords. The House of Lords sat as judges and tried the accused person. A



THOMAS WENTWORTH, EARL OF STRAFFORD,
(From a portrait by Van Dyck.)

"*Bill of Attainder*" was a bill brought into one of the Houses of Parliament, passed through both Houses, and agreed to by the king; it then became an Act like any other Act of Parliament, and had to be obeyed as part of the law. In a Bill of Attainder the person accused was declared to be guilty of certain crimes, and it was enacted that he should be punished for them in a certain way. The punishment was generally death.

Out of the two ways open to them of attacking Strafford, the House of Commons chose the first. They *impeached him of high treason* before the House of Lords. They said that he had acted contrary to law in Ireland—that he had raised an army, and that he had offered to bring the army into England to put down Parliament. Strafford defended himself bravely. He proved that what he had done, he had done not only with the consent but with the approval of the king. He denied that he had intended to bring an army into England.

The Commons soon found that they were not likely to prove their case, and, fearing lest Strafford should escape, they suddenly changed their plan and brought in a *Bill of Attainder* against the earl in the House of Commons. The Bill was carried by a large majority. The House of Lords also passed it. One thing only was needed to make the Bill law and to insure the death of Strafford. That one thing was the consent of the king. To his everlasting shame Charles gave his consent and signed his name, knowing that by doing so he was sacrificing the life of one of the most faithful servants he had ever had. The terrible penalty was carried out. In the report of the State Trials we read how an order was sent to the Constable of the Tower to deliver over the "bright Execution Ax," and on May 12th, 1641, Strafford was beheaded.

Encouraged by their success, the House of Commons now impeached **Laud**. He was removed from the office which he held, but nothing further was done to him at the time. Bills were brought into the House the object of which was to punish all those who had assisted the king in his illegal actions. Some of them were passed. The collection of "**ship-money**" was declared illegal. The judges who had declared the contrary were impeached. The **Court of Star-Chamber** and other similar courts were abolished. A Bill was passed providing that a Parliament should be held *every three years*,¹ and a Bill was actually passed by which the king was forbidden to dissolve Parliament without its own consent.

¹ The "Triennial Bill."

The Arrest of the Five Members.

"Privilege! Privilege!"

The long struggle between the King and Commons had now come to the stage when it could no longer be continued without war. It soon became clear that if the king had consented to the new Bills, it was only because he had felt himself compelled to do so by force and had no intention of keeping his promises when free from restraint. Charles saw plainly that if he were to get his own way it could only be by force of arms. He had lost so many friends by his tyranny and faithlessness, that he felt it was high time to make some new friends, who would stand by him in the time of trouble.

It was in **Scotland** that he hoped to find them. Nor was he disappointed. He went to Edinburgh, and succeeded, by promises, favours, and rewards, in winning a large party in Scotland to his side. Strengthened by his new friendships, he returned to London. The Londoners welcomed him loyally, but the House of Commons distrusted him, and not without reason; for they had learnt that while in Scotland he had been planning how to punish the members who had taken part against him.

Nor were the fear and distrust felt by the Commons diminished when the king took away the guards who had hitherto protected Parliament from violence. Once more a statement of the grievances of Parliament, and of all the wrongs which had been done during the reign, was drawn up by the Commons, and, after a stormy debate, was passed and presented to the king.

Meanwhile the feeling between the two parties—the king's party and the party of the Parliament—was growing more bitter every day. There were riots in London, and the members declared that their lives were in danger from the king's friends when they went to Westminster. The king bade them "have no fear." He said he would himself protect them, and that "he would solemnly engage, on the word of a king, the security of every one of them from violence." On the very same day it was seen what was the value of the King's promise. On that day (4th of January, 1642) six members of Parliament—**Lord Kimbolton**, in the House of Lords, **Pym**, **Hampden**, **Hazlrig**, **Holles**, and **Strode**, in the Commons—were charged by the king with High Treason.

The king himself actually came down to the House with a guard

of soldiers to arrest the members. He left his soldiers outside the door, and entered the House of Commons. Then there followed a strange and memorable scene.

"By your leave, Mr. Speaker," said the king to Speaker Lenthall, "I must borrow your chair a little"; and Charles took his seat in the Speaker's chair, **Lenthall** kneeling before him, and the members standing with their hats off. Then the king told the house what he had come for—that those who were to be arrested were guilty of High Treason, and that he came to know if they were there. He looked round the House, but none of the accused were in their places. They had received warning in time and had kept away.

The king asked the Speaker where the missing members were. Lenthall, on his knees, replied that he had "neither eyes to see nor tongue to speak but as the House directed." "Well," said the king, "since I see all the birds are flown, I do expect, as soon as they return, you do send them to me"; and, mortified and angry, he left the House, the members, as he went, calling out "*Privilege! Privilege!*" by which they meant that the king had acted contrary to the **Rights and Privileges** of the House.

But one more step remained to be taken before the long quarrel ended in war. The Commons, anxious for their own safety, claimed the right to appoint officers for the **militia**. The king at once refused the request, and the Commons as promptly took steps to appoint the officers without the king's consent. It was now clear that nothing could settle the differences between the two parties but war, and preparations were at once made on both sides for fighting the battle out.

Both king and Parliament began to raise troops and to collect ammunition. On the **23rd of April, 1642** (St. George's Day), the first act of civil war took place. On that day **Sir John Hotham**, who was in command at Hull, refused to obey the king's order to give up the arms and magazines stored in the town, and shut the gates against the king.





KING CHARLES AND SPEAKER LENTHALL.

CHAPTER LIV.

HOW PARLIAMENT PUNISHED THE KING.

1642—1649.

War.

*"Is it peace or war? better, war! loud war by land and by sea;
War with a thousand battles and shaking a hundred thrones."*

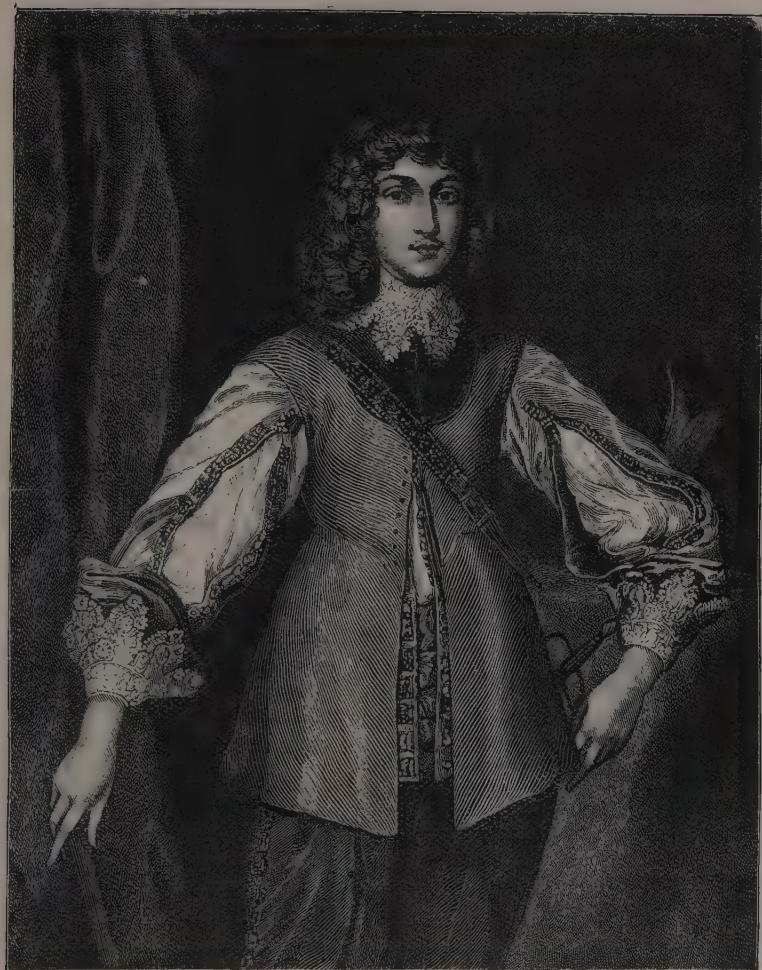
Tennyson: "Maud."

AND now we have come to the end of the second and to the beginning of the third part of the great struggle between Charles and Parliament; and the interest which has hitherto been confined to the walls of the House of Commons is now transferred to the camp and the battlefield.

On the **22nd of August, 1642**, Charles raised his royal standard at **Nottingham**. The flag was blown down, and had to be set up again. Some declared that this was a bad sign for the king's cause. The royal army was under the command of the king himself and of the **Earl of Lindsay**, a Scottish general. The king's nephews, **Rupert** and **Maurice**, came over from Germany, longing to win glory in the war, and were given commands in the cavalry. At the head of the Parliamentary army was the **Earl of Essex**, and under him was an officer who played so great a part in the war that followed, that we must stop for a moment to speak about him.

Among the members who had been elected to the third Parliament of King Charles's reign was a gentleman from Huntingdon, who sat as member for the town in which he lived. His name was **Oliver Cromwell**, and when he entered Parliament he was twenty-nine years of age. He was the son of Robert and Elizabeth Cromwell, who were well-to-do East-country people. He had been brought up at Huntingdon School, and had been to college at the University of Cambridge. In his twenty-second year he married **Elizabeth Bourchier**, and lived on his own property, farming the land. He was a good rider, fond of sports, active, and strong both in mind and body. He was elected in 1629 for **Cambridge**, and took a great part in the work of the "*Long Parliament*." He was now given the command of the *Train-bands*, or "*Town Militia*," who had been called out to serve the Parliament.

There is not room in this little book to tell at any length the story



PRINCE RUPERT.
(From the portrait by Van Dyck.)

of the Civil War between the king and Parliament—the *Cavaliers* and *Roundheads*. Many books have been written giving accounts of the battles, the sieges, and the marches. It was a terrible war, as every civil war must be. Families were divided, brothers sometimes fought on different sides, and English blood was shed by English hands.

The first part of the war was favourable to the king. This was.



CAVALIER SOLDIERS.

indeed, to be expected. There were very few regular soldiers in England, and most of those who there were had joined the king. Then, again, the Cavaliers were for the most part gentlemen who had been accustomed to use their swords, were good riders, and who were by their training taught that it was disgraceful to show fear. They had with them, too, soldiers like Prince Rupert and his brother Prince Maurice, who had been brought up in the midst of war, and to whom fighting was a very familiar occupation.

The Royalists also had what seemed another great advantage in having one man at the head of their party to whom all could look, and who could give orders which everyone was bound to obey. Nothing makes an army so strong in war as having a head who is obeyed by

all, and who gives wise orders to those under him. Unfortunately for the Cavaliers, King Charles turned out to be a very bad head for his party, and he managed so badly that he gave time to his enemies to choose out among themselves a really great leader, for whom Charles was no match at all.

But at the beginning of the war the Parliamentary army was under great disadvantages. It was made up of men who were for the most part quite unaccustomed to fighting, and many of whom had never handled a sword or a musket. Some of the soldiers were brave enough, but it has always been found in war that bravery alone is not sufficient to secure victory. *Discipline* and *practice* are also needed, and the Parliamentary troops were at first without either discipline or practice.

There was also another thing which gave an advantage to the Cavaliers at first. Among the gentlemen who followed King Charles there was not one who would not have considered it disgraceful to show cowardice in battle. Many of them were bad men, and lived careless, useless lives; but when they came to fighting there is no doubt that they had an advantage over the lawyers, shopkeepers, and labourers, who had never cared for fighting or made it the chief end of their lives. Many of the Cavaliers, at the beginning of the war, fought for "*Honour*." Honour is not the best thing to fight for; but the man who fights for honour will generally be a better soldier than a man who fights merely because he is paid to fight; and at the beginning of the war a great many of the Parliamentary soldiers only fought because they were paid to do so.

It was not till there arose in the Parliamentary army soldiers who fought for something better than honour—namely, *Religion* and *Duty*—that the Parliamentary troops became victorious. We shall see how in time **Oliver Cromwell** raised up a body of soldiers who fought for religion and duty, and who had also learnt discipline and the use of their arms, and how this new force carried all before it.

The first battle was fought at **Edgehill**, near Banbury, on the 23rd of October, 1642. The king's troops got the best of the day. Many of the Roundhead soldiers ran away without fighting; and if Prince Rupert had not been too keen in his pursuit of those who fled, the king would have won a great victory. Cromwell, with his soldier's eye, saw that if his party were going to win it must have better tools than these runaway soldiers. "*It is plain*," said he to his friend John Hampden, "*that men of religion are wanted to withstand these gentlemen of honour*." It was feared that the king would advance upon London; and the royal army actually got so far as **Brentford**,

ten miles from London; but at the last moment the king determined to fall back upon Oxford.

England had now begun to divide itself into two parts. The **West** and **South-west** for the most part, went with the king. The **Eastern Counties** were mostly for the Parliament. The counties of **Cambridge**, **Suffolk**, **Norfolk**, **Essex**, and **Hertford**, and later on **Huntingdon** and **Lincoln**, formed themselves into a league against the king. This league was called "*The Association*," and Cromwell succeeded in making it a strong and united body.

Cromwell and the "Ironsides."

*"But hark! what means this trampling of horsemen on our rear?
Whose banner do I see, boys? 'Tis he, thank God, 'tis he, boys!
Bear up another moment, brave Oliver is here."*

*"With heads all stooping low, with points all in a row,
Like a whirlwind on the trees, like a deluge on the dikes,
Our Cuirassiers have burst on the ranks of the accurst,
And with one blast have scattered the forest of his pikes."*

Macaulay: "Naseby."

In the year 1643 things went badly with the Parliament. Their troops were defeated in many places, and one of the best men in the party lost his life. This was **John Hampden**, whose death took place during a small skirmish at **Chalgrove Field**, near Oxford. It is said that he was killed by the explosion of his own pistol, which had been loaded with two charges by mistake.

Matters looked so bad for the cause of Parliament that the leaders now looked about for fresh allies, and succeeded in persuading the **Scottish Covenanters** to aid them with an army of over 20,000 men. And now at last the fortune of war began to turn for the first time against King Charles. Gloucester, which was besieged by the royal troops, was relieved by the Parliamentary general, the Earl of Essex. A drawn battle was fought at **Newbury**, in Berkshire, in which one of the best and wisest of the king's advisers—the good and brave **Lord Falkland**—lost his life.

In his great "*History of the Rebellion*" Clarendon thus describes the beautiful character of his friend Falkland:—*That little person and small stature was quickly found to contain a great heart, a courage so keen, and a nature so fearless that no composition of the strongest limbs and most*

harmonious and proportioned presence and strength ever more disposed any man to the greatest enterprise; it being his greatest weakness to be too solicitous for such adventures. His disposition and nature were so gentle and obliging, so much delighted in courtesy, kindness and generosity, that all mankind could not but admire and love him."

While the Parliament sought help from the Scottish Covenanters, the king succeeded in raising troops among his friends, both in Scotland and Ireland; and thus the Civil War spread further and further over England, Scotland, and Ireland. In 1644 Lord Fairfax, a Yorkshireman and a member of the Long Parliament, was in command of the Parliamentary army in the north of England, and under him was General Cromwell, commanding a regiment of horse. We have already seen what kind of men General Cromwell wanted to have under his command. He wanted men of "honour" and "religion." He had now got what he wanted; and for the first time Prince Rupert and his Cavaliers found themselves face to face with an enemy who was more than a match for them.



JOHN HAMPDEN.

Towards the end of the year 1643 Cromwell had written a letter to two friends in Cambridge, in which he spoke of a success which had been won by some of the cavalry under his command. He writes:—*"God hath given the victory to our handful; let us endeavour to keep it. I had rather have a plain russet-coated captain that knows what he fights for, and loves what he knows, than that which you call a 'gentleman' and is nothing else. I honour a gentleman that is so, indeed";* and in another part of the letter he says:—*"I beseech you be careful what captains of horse you choose—what men be mounted; a few honest men are better than numbers."*

Cromwell was not the man to give advice to others without

following his own precepts. He had already raised a "handful" of troopers—honest men, who knew what they fought for, and loved what they knew; and from this "handful" grew the famous regiment of cavalry known as Cromwell's *Ironsides*—men who were never beaten, who cut their way to victory on every English battlefield, and who, when war was over in England and when they were forced to take service in foreign lands, were admitted by the best soldiers in Europe to be the most formidable cavalry the world had ever seen.



STATUE OF FALKLAND IN THE
HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT.

(Photo by York & Son.)

The *Ironsides* were taken, for the most part, from among the *Independents*. The *Independents* were men who went even further than the Presbyterians, and most of the Parliamentary party, in their hatred of the bishops and the king; and many of them were Republicans, who wished to see the country governed without a king at all. Those of them who served in Cromwell's regiment of "Ironsides" were men of very strict religious views. The Bible was constantly read in the regiments, both in camp and in the field. Both officers and men believed that in fighting against the king they were fighting against the enemies of God. Many of them took fresh names, chosen from the Old Testament, and some made up strange names out of texts of Scripture, such as "Corporal of Horse Ebenezer Rest-in-the-Lord,"

"Sergeant O-be-thankful Johnson," or "Trooper Solomon Praise-God."

It must not be supposed, however, that either their religion or their belief in their cause would have made the Ironsides into good soldiers if they had not learnt the duties of a soldier. Cromwell knew this well enough, and he took pains to instruct his men in the very best drill which was then known in Europe. The men were well mounted on stout horses, and knew how to ride. They wore buff-leather coats, iron helmets and breastplates, and long leather boots. They carried heavy, straight swords, which they knew well how to use. They were

under very strict discipline, and were as fine a body of horsemen as ever served under any general.

It was not long before the Royalists found out what sort of men they had to deal with. On the 3rd of July, 1644, a battle took place at Marston Moor, in Yorkshire. For the first time Cromwell's new cavalry took part in a great battle. The king's troops were unable to stand up against them. "*The Left Wing, which I commanded,*" writes Cromwell after the battle, "*being our own horse . . . beat all the Prince's Horse.*"¹ *God made them as stubble to our swords. We charged their regiments of foot with our horse, and routed all we charged.*" The battle of Marston Moor made Fairfax (son of the Lord Fairfax already mentioned, the Parliamentary general) master of the north of England, but everyone knew that the victory was due to Cromwell.

The Rise of the "Independents" and the "New Model."

"Put your trust in God and keep your powder dry."—Cromwell's advice to his soldiers.

Up to this time there had been only two parties—one for the king, the other for the Parliament; but a new party now began to grow up, which in the end became more powerful than either of the others. This was the "*Independent Party*," which was really the party of the Army. It is not hard to see how the Independent party won its power. A large body of men like the House of Commons is well fitted to hold great debates and to make laws. In time of peace it may even be able to govern the country; but in time of war, especially in time of civil war, it will almost always happen that if those who are more accustomed to talking than to fighting and acting, try to carry on the war themselves, they will fail in the attempt. Those who have really to act and to do the fighting are sure to become the most powerful party in the country, and the leaders of such a party will soon object to being interfered with by those who talk and pass resolutions, but do not risk their lives on the battlefield.

And so it was in the quarrel between the king and Parliament. The leaders of the Army soon began to feel their power, and the better and more successful the Army was, the greater its power became. Hence, before long, there grew up great differences of opinion between the members of the Parliament, who were mostly *Presbyterians*, and

¹ Prince Rupert.

the chiefs of the Army, many of whom were *Independents*. The first sign of this quarrel was seen in the year 1645, when it was proposed that no member of Parliament should be allowed to keep his place as an officer in the Army.

This proposal was agreed to. It was known as the "*Self-denying Ordinance*," because it was supposed that the members had of their own will denied themselves the right of serving in both the Army and



ROUNDHEAD SOLDIERS.

in Parliament. Cromwell, who had now been made a major-general, was very pleased with the result, because it took away from the Army **Essex** and some other officers who were above him in rank, and under whom he did not wish to serve.

Cromwell, however, had no intention of either going out of Parliament or out of the Army. An exception was made in his favour on account of the good service he had done, and he was allowed both to keep his seat in Parliament and his post as *Major-General*. **Fairfax** was made *General-in-Chief*, and **Cromwell** was given command of the cavalry. Now that the soldiers had got the Army to themselves, they set to work to improve it. It was made into an army much more like the regular armies which are kept up in our own time. Proper

regiments were formed, and men served for a fixed time, and were regularly drilled and paid. Proper discipline was observed. The Army, thus improved, was known as the "*New Model*." Both the king's party and the Parliament were now more inclined for peace than they had been before, and, if it had not been for the "**New Model**" army, peace might perhaps have been made.

But Charles, learning that there was a division between his enemies, put an end to the negotiations which had been begun, and the war went on. In Scotland the **Earl of Montrose** headed the king's party. The **Marquis of Argyle**, the head of the great clan of the **Campbells**, was the chief leader on the Parliamentary side. There was fierce fighting, and for a time the king's party got rather the best of it.

But a great blow was awaiting the royal cause in England. On the **14th of June, 1645**, was fought the battle of **Naseby**, in Northamptonshire. The "*New Model*" army was for the first time employed. The victory of Fairfax and Cromwell was complete: the king's army was broken and destroyed; no less than 1,000 of the royal troops were killed and wounded, and 5,000 taken prisoners.

It was in this year (1645) that **Archbishop Laud**, who had been imprisoned since his trial in 1641, was executed.

The King's Crown Goes Down.

"Kings with their armies did flee and were discomfited,"

Psalm lxxviii. 12.

From this time forward the royal cause suffered defeat in almost every part of the kingdom. Fairfax relieved **Taunton**, and stormed **Bridgwater** and **Bristol**; **Montrose** was defeated in Scotland; the royal troops in **Cornwall**, who had hitherto held their own, were dispersed; and finally, **Oxford**, in which the king had so long held his Court, surrendered to General Fairfax in June, 1646.

The king was beaten in the field. The only hope left to him was to try and win by craft what he could not win by war. He made offers separately to Parliament and to the heads of the Army, hoping that he could persuade either the one or the other to act alone, and thus raise a quarrel. But the plan failed. In despair, he decided to trust himself to the **Scots**, and fled to the Scottish army, which at that time had marched as far south as Newark, in Nottinghamshire. To the Scots he made all manner of promises if only they would

desert the cause of the Parliament. But once more his efforts failed. Parliament undertook to pay £400,000 to the Scottish army if they would go back into Scotland and give up the king. The Scots took the money, withdrew to Newcastle, and on the 30th of January, 1647, handed over King Charles to his enemies.



SIEGE PIECE (value 10s.) ISSUED DURING THE SIEGE OF COLCHESTER.

The king was taken a prisoner to Holmby House, in Northamptonshire. At first it seemed as if Charles would be more dangerous as a prisoner than he had been when free, for already many of the Presbyterian party in Parliament, who were afraid of the Independents and of the Army, were ready to make terms with him; but the Army was by no means ready to lose its prisoner, and an officer of cavalry, **Cornet Joyce** by name, settled the question in a rough-and-ready way by riding up to Holmby House with 500 troopers, and taking the king off to Newmarket.

The quarrel between the **Presbyterians** and the **Independents** grew sharper than ever, but the king was now a safe prisoner in the hands



SIEGE-PIECE ISSUED DURING THE SIEGE OF NEWARK.

of the latter. Orders were given to the Army to march to London. Their advance greatly frightened the Presbyterian party. They feared for the safety of Parliament, and were even afraid for their own lives. At one time they thought of raising soldiers to protect themselves, but they found they were not strong enough to do so, and that the Londoners would not stand by them; and in August, 1647, the Army marched into London.

The **Independents** were now masters of the situation, and the **Independents** hated the king. What is more, they knew that they had no mercy to expect from him in case he once more got the upper hand. It was Charles's misfortune that he could get no one to trust his word, but it was a misfortune which he had brought upon himself, for he had so often deceived and betrayed his best friends, that it was not wonderful his enemies should distrust him. Charles well knew the danger he was in.

He had been taken from Newmarket to Hampton Court, but at the end of November, 1647, he succeeded in escaping, and fled to Carisbrooke Castle, in the Isle of Wight. While there he tried to induce the **Scots** to help him once more, and he did all he could to increase the number of his friends in England. His efforts met with some success. The Scottish Parliament actually decided to send an army into England, and the king's friends, among whom there were now many of the **Presbyterians**, rose in arms.

The **Independents** and the heads of the Army saw very plainly that they must either put down their new enemies at once, or must themselves be in 'great danger of destruction. They decided to act with vigour and promptitude. **Fairfax** defeated the king's friends in Kent. **Cromwell** and **General Lambert** destroyed the Scottish army at Preston. Charles's last hope was now gone. He tried to escape from Carisbrooke, as he had succeeded in doing from Hampton Court, but was prevented, and was shut up in a strong prison at Hurst Castle, in Hampshire, just opposite the Isle of Wight.

The Army at last was victorious over all its enemies, and the leaders of the Army were now determined upon a step which they thought would enable them to keep their power. The Army had been made by the Parliament, and it had declared that it was in the cause of Parliament it had fought. But the time had now come when it was to strike a terrible blow against the very Parliament to which it owed its existence. The majority in the House of Commons voted in favour of coming to an agreement with the king. The heads of the Army were determined that no such agreement should be come to.

On the 6th of December, 1648, **Colonel Pride**, with a party of cavalry soldiers, marched down to the House of Commons, and, standing at the door, ordered his troopers to arrest the members of the **Presbyterian** party as they came out. Those who were arrested were hurried off to prison. And thus we see that, within six years of the time when Charles had brought about civil war by trying to arrest five members of the House of Commons, a military officer belonging to that very army which Parliament had created arrested not only *five* but

over fifty members within the very walls of Parliament, and with no other authority than the sword by his side.

This violent act of Colonel Pride's was called "*Pride's Purge*," for it was said that he had *purged* the evil out of the House of Commons. About fifty members only remained in the House of Commons, all of them Independents, and ready to do exactly what the Army ordered them to do. These remaining members were called the "*Rump*," and for five years to come the "*Rump*" were the only representatives of the Commons of England.

The Death of the King.

"It is ordered That the Officers of the Ordnance within the Tower of London, or any other Officer or Officers of the Store within the said Tower, in whose hands and custody the bright execution Ax for the executing Malefactors is, do forthwith deliver unto Edward Dendy, Esq., Serjeant-at-Arms attending this Court, or his Deputy, or Deputies, the said Ax. And for their, or either of their, so doing this shall be their warrant."—Order sent by the High Court to Colonel John White, Governor of the Tower ("*State Trials*").

The leaders of the Army now were free to carry out their will with respect to the king, and their will and intention was that he should die. Charles was brought up under a guard from Hurst Castle to Whitehall. A Bill was passed declaring that it was *High Treason* to make war upon Parliament, and a *High Court of Justice* was appointed to try the question of whether the king had been guilty of high treason or not.

On the 20th of January, 1649, the High Court was called together, and Bradshaw, a lawyer, was put at the head of it. Charles was brought before his judges. He at once declared that the Court had no right whatever to try him, and there can be no doubt at all that, according to the law of England, he was perfectly correct, and that it had not the least right to do so. It must not be forgotten, however, that Charles himself had frequently broken the law, and that, for a long time past, *force* and not *law* had ruled in England.

The trial took place in Westminster Hall. A full account of it has come down to us. There is not room here to give this full account, but it is well to know what were the charges which were brought against the King of England. This was the charge as Bradshaw spoke it:—

"Charles Stuart, King of England.—The Commons of England, being deeply sensible of the calamities that have been brought upon this nation, which are fixed upon you as the principal author of them, have resolved to make inquisition for blood; and according to that debt and due they owe to justice, to God, the kingdom, and themselves, they have resolved to bring you to trial and judgment; and for that purpose have constituted this High Court of Justice before which you are brought."

The trial lasted several days. Charles bore himself with courage and dignity. The eyes of all men were fixed upon him in his last hours, and pity and admiration for his courage won him and his cause many friends and made many who had been his enemies forget their enmity. But from the beginning the Court had made up its mind as to its sentence, and Bradshaw read that sentence in these words:—"That the Court, being satisfied in conscience that he, Charles Stuart, is guilty of the crimes of which he hath been accused, doth adjudge him as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of the nation, to be put to death by severing his head from his body." The same warrant was sent to the Governor of the Tower as had been sent before Strafford's death, but this time it was to order the Governor to "deliver up the bright ax" for the execution of Strafford's master, Charles himself.

The king was sent a prisoner to St. James's Palace, where two of his children—**Henry** and **Elizabeth**—were allowed to visit him. A touching account is given of the king's last parting from his children. On the 30th of January, when the snow was on the ground, the king, attended by **Juxon**, Bishop of London, was taken to the place of execution outside the Banqueting Hall, Whitehall.¹

From the scaffold Charles spoke to those who could hear him. At the last moment Juxon said to him: "*There is but one stage more, which though turbulent and troublesome, is yet a very short one. Consider it will carry you a great way—even from earth to heaven.*" "I go," replied the king, "*from a corruptible crown to an incorruptible, where no disturbance can take place.*"

He laid his head upon the block, and the executioner severed it at one stroke. Holding up the head in one hand, he cried, "Here is the head of a traitor!" The Army had triumphed, and their enemy was dead, but in his death he had done them more harm than he could do in his life. Bradshaw and his friends might look upon the king as a "Traitor," but now that he was gone the people of England began to look upon him as a "Martyr," and it might truly be said of him that "*nothing in his life became him like the leaving of it.*" From that day

¹ The Banqueting Hall afterwards became the Chapel Royal, Whitehall, but is now occupied by the Royal United Service Institution.

forward the Royalist party, though defeated and powerless for a time, became stronger, till at last it became once more the strongest party in the land.

CHAPTER LV.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND.

1649—1660.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE PERIOD OF THE COMMONWEALTH

Oliver Cromwell, afterwards Lord Protector, b. 1599, d. 1658.
Elizabeth Bourchier, wife of Oliver Cromwell.
Richard Cromwell, afterwards Lord Protector.
Charles Stuart, Prince of Wales, afterwards King of England.
Louis XIV., King of France.
Philip IV., King of Spain.
Ferdinand III., Emperor, d. 1657.
Leopold I., son of Ferdinand, Emperor.
William II., Stadtholder of Holland, d. 1650.
Mary, daughter of Charles I., wife of William II. of Holland.
William Henry, son of William II. of Holland and King of England.
Charles X., King of Sweden, d. 1660.
Innocent X., Pope, d. 1655.
Alexander VII., Pope, d. 1667.
Clement IX., Pope.

Prince Rupert, cousin to Charles Stuart, Prince of Wales.

Parliamentary Generals:—

Monk, afterwards Duke of Albemarle.
Lord Fairfax.
Ireton, son-in-law to Cromwell, d. 1651.
The Earl of Montrose, executed 1650.
Robert Blake, "General-at-Sea," d. 1657.

Van Tromp, Dutch Admiral, d. 1653.

De Ruyter, Dutch Admiral.

Cardinal Mazarin, Minister of Louis XIV.

William Lenthall, Speaker of the Long Parliament.

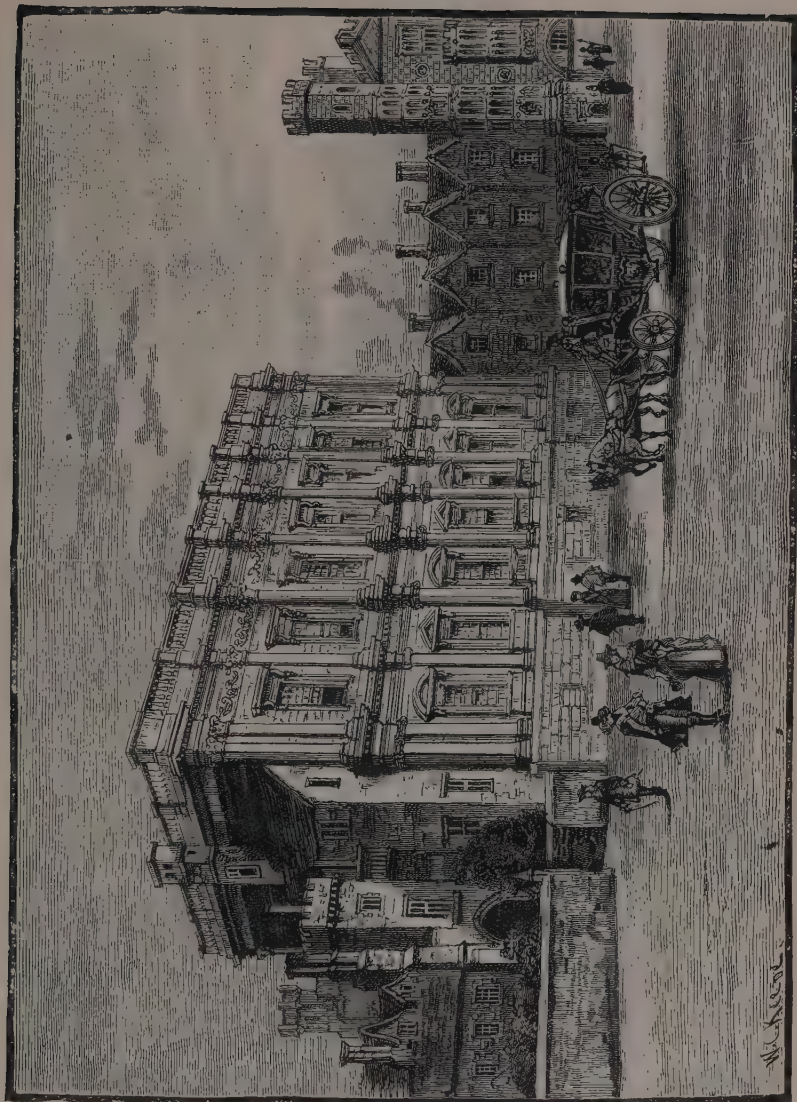
Great Writers:—

John Milton.
Edmund Waller, b. 1606.
John Bunyan, b. 1628.
Dr. William Harvey, d. 1657.
George Fox, founder of the Society of Friends, or Quakers.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE PERIOD OF THE COMMONWEALTH.

1649. Cromwell restores order in Ireland.
 1650. Earl of Montrose defeated and executed.
 Cromwell wins the battle of Dunbar.
 Birth of William of Orange, afterwards William III.
 The Dutch take the Cape of Good Hope.
 1651. Charles II. begins campaign in Scotland.
 Battle of Worcester.
 1652. War between England and Holland.
 1653. Naval battles between Blake and Van Tromp.
 Cromwell dissolves the Long Parliament.

1653. "Barebone's Parliament" summoned and dissolved.
 Cromwell appointed Lord Protector.
 1654. Peace with Holland.
 1656. War between England and Spain.
 1657. Plots against Cromwell discovered.
 Blake defeats the Spaniards at sea.
 House of Lords re-established.
 1658. Death of Oliver Cromwell. Richard declared Protector.
 1659. "Rump" Parliament re-assembles.
 Quarrel between the Parliament and the Army.
 1660. Monk enters London and declares for a "free" Parliament.



THE BANQUETING HALL, WHITEHALL.

The Commons Triumphant.

"Down, down, for ever down with the mitre and the crown.

* * * * *

*. . . the kings of earth in fear shall shudder when they hear
What the hand of God hath wrought for the Houses and the Word."*
Macaulay. (Supposed to be spoken by Obadiah Bind-their-kings-in-chains-
and-their-nobles-with-links-of-iron, serjeant in Ireton's regiment.)

WE now come to a very interesting and important part in the history of England. It deals with the eleven years which passed between the execution of Charles I., in 1649, and the restoration of his son

Charles II., in the year 1660. The period is known as that of the **Commonwealth**.

We may learn two useful lessons from what took place during these eleven years. In the first place, we may learn how great a work may be done by a strong resolute Englishman who believes in the cause for which he fights, and who has the power to carry out his will. In the second place, we may learn how im-



GREAT SEAL OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND
(OVERSE).

possible it is even for the greatest and strongest of men to govern the people of England for long against their will, and how a government which is built upon force alone is certain to fail at length

in a country in which people have for centuries been accustomed to freedom.

On the death of Charles it seemed as if the party of the Independents were all-powerful in the land. All the chief commands in the Army were held by them, and the strongest and most feared of all the chiefs of the Army was Oliver Cromwell, who was himself one of the leaders of the party. There was, indeed, no force in the kingdom which was able to stand up against the victorious Army. The king's eldest son — Charles, Prince of Wales — had now become king by right on the death of his father, but he was only nineteen years old, and not to be feared. It was, however, declared by Parliament that to speak of him or to proclaim him as king was high treason. Having put to death one king and having declared it high treason to proclaim another, the House of Commons, or what was left of it, now turned its attention to the **House of Lords**.



GREAT SEAL OF THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND
(REVERSE).

The greater number of the members of the House of Lords had supported the king throughout the war. Only a few had remained in their places, and the House had ceased to have any power at all. The House of Commons decided to abolish it, and on February 6th, 1649, the "Rump" voted, by 44 votes to 29, that "*the House of Peers in Parliament is useless and dangerous, and ought to be abolished.*" An Act was afterwards passed to abolish the House of Lords. It was plainly impossible, however, to go on making laws for long when there was neither a king nor a House of Lords, and when the House of Commons numbered under a hundred members, all belonging to one party. It

was decided, therefore, to recall some of the members of the Long Parliament who had been turned out, and the number of the House of Commons was thus raised to 150.

Another Act of Parliament was now passed declaring that England was no longer a kingdom, but was for ever afterwards to be a Republic. A Council of State of forty-one members was appointed to carry on the Government. **Oliver Cromwell**, **Hazelrig**, **Skippon**, **Hutchinson**, all of them soldiers, were among the principal members. **John Milton**, the great poet who wrote "*Paradise Lost*," was made Secretary to the Council. A number of the chief Royalists were tried for the part they had taken in the war, and several were executed.

Cromwell in Ireland.

"O my poor Kingdom, sick with civil blows."

Shakespeare: "Henry IV.," Pt. II., Act IV., Scene 4.

Now that the new Government had been set up, and had got rid of its worst enemies, it was time to set to work to restore peace and order and to carry on the business of the country. **Ireland** was the first place which required attention. There were many in Ireland who were always enemies to the English Government, and there were also the king's friends in that country. These two parties were now united in arms against the Parliament. It was decided to send over **Cromwell**, as Lord Lieutenant, with an army to put down all disorder.

In August, 1649, Cromwell sailed from Bristol to take the command in Ireland. He had already become the most powerful man in England, and he was not slow to show by outward signs that he knew how great and important a person he had become. He drove to Bristol in state in a coach-and-six, with eighty Life Guards in rich uniforms surrounding his carriage. Trumpets were sounded before him. Already some men began to think that they had only got rid of one king to set up another.

Of this opinion were the "**Levellers**," a party in the Army who did not think that the Independents had gone far enough, and who were ready to destroy any other thing besides the Crown and the House of Lords. They wanted to pull down or *level* everything, and for this reason they were known as "*Levellers*." So powerful had the Levellers become that, when the regiments were ordered to start for Ireland, they succeeded in creating a mutiny, which was only put down with some difficulty by Fairfax and Cromwell.

There is not space here to tell the story of Cromwell's war in Ireland at any length. It was a war carried on with great severity and often with great cruelty, and, like all civil wars, it left behind very bitter memories. From first to last, however, Cromwell showed himself a skilful general and a most resolute soldier. When he landed in Ireland, only two places in the whole island, **Dublin** and **Londonderry**, still held out for the Parliament, and everywhere the Protestants who had favoured the cause of Parliament were in danger of being plundered and of losing their lives.

Cromwell's campaign was short but decisive. The troops he had with him were the Roundhead soldiers, who had been taught to conquer upon the battlefields of Marston Moor and Naseby. Their discipline was good and their training was good. Neither the Royalists nor their Irish allies could resist them. The **Marquis of Ormond** advanced with a royal army upon Dublin. Cromwell attacked him and destroyed his army at the village of **Rathmines**, just outside Dublin. Marching northward, Cromwell laid siege to **Drogheda**, a town on the **Boyne**. On September 11th he stormed the town at the head of his troops. The garrison were treated as rebels taken in arms, and were put to death. **Londonderry** was relieved.

Wexford was summoned to surrender. The governor refused. Cromwell sent a message to tell him he must take the consequences. The town was stormed and taken, and the garrison, like that of Drogheda, put to the sword. **Kilkenny** and **Clonmel** were taken early in the next year (1650). **Waterford** alone held out. In ten months Cromwell had re-conquered Ireland for the Parliament, and in the summer of 1650 he was able to obey the order of the Council to return to Great Britain, where his services were now greatly needed.

Dunbar and Worcester.

"With the rest of the horse, and nine regiments of foot—most of them of your old foot and horse—I am hasting up; and shall, by the Lord's help, use utmost diligence. I hope I have left a commanding force under Lieutenant-General Monck in Scotland. This account I thought it my duty to speed to you; and rest—Your most humble servant, Oliver Cromwell."—*Letter from Cromwell to Speaker Lenthall, written from Leith before the battle of Worcester, 4th of August, 1651.*

Although Parliament had declared that the young **Charles Stuart** was not to be called a "king," and had made it high treason to speak of him as such, the Royalists had never for a moment ceased to think

and speak of him as *Charles the Second*. After his father's death, and after the defeat of his friends in England, the young king had tried his fortunes in Scotland. At first he met with nothing but disaster. The **Marquis of Montrose** had collected a small army, with which he advanced against the Covenanters. He was, however, defeated, his army was dispersed, and he himself was taken prisoner. On May 21st, 1650, he was hanged at Edinburgh as a traitor by his bitter enemies the Covenanters.

Charles saw that his old friends the Cavaliers were, for the time at any rate, unable to serve him to any purpose; he therefore looked about for new and more powerful allies, and went so far as to enter into an agreement with the Covenanters, who had so long been his enemies, and who had sold his father to the English army. He declared that Montrose had fought without his orders and contrary to his wish, a declaration which was altogether untrue. He signed the Covenant, gave a promise that the Scottish Church should be governed according to its own rules, and that he himself would rule Scotland only with the consent and by the advice of the Scottish Parliament.

The English Parliament and the Council of State saw that it would be dangerous to allow this new alliance between the king whom they had dethroned and the Covenanters to grow any stronger. It was decided to attack the new enemy at once, and it was in order that he might take charge of the army which was to invade Scotland that Cromwell had been recalled from Ireland. Cromwell marched across the Border in July, 1650, at the head of an army of 16,000 men. The skill which he had shown as a general in Ireland did not forsake him in Scotland. On September 3rd he routed the Scottish army at **Dunbar**, a town lying on the Firth of Forth, to the south-east of Edinburgh. **Edinburgh** itself was taken a few days later, and the danger from Scotland was at an end for a time.

Cromwell moved northward in order to make sure of the submission of the counties of Perthshire and Fifeshire; but as he marched *North*, Charles took the opportunity to hasten *South*, and, to the surprise and alarm of Parliament, news was received that the king had entered England and was marching towards London. Cromwell was immediately ordered to return, and at length overtook the royal army at Worcester. On September 3rd, 1651, was fought the battle of **Worcester**, the last battle of any importance in the Civil War. Once more Cromwell and his seasoned troops proved victorious, the royal army was defeated, and Charles was forced to fly, escaping with difficulty from the close pursuit of his enemies.

The fugitive king had many adventures, and ran many risks of

being taken, and at one time the pursuers came so close that he was forced to take refuge in the thick branches of an oak tree. Hidden by the close screen of leaves, he escaped discovery; and, in after years, it became the fashion among loyal people to commemorate the king's escape by wearing an oak leaf or an oak apple on "*Oak-apple Day*."

At last Charles succeeded, after more than six weeks' wanderings, in reaching the coast of France in safety.

The Quarrel with the Dutch.

"To be master of the sea is an abridgment of monarchy."

Bacon's Essays.

Cromwell, the victor of Dunbar and Worcester, was now, beyond all doubt, master of the three kingdoms. The Irish revolt had been put down; Scotland was now quiet under the strong rule of **General Monk**, whom Cromwell had left in the country with an army of 5,000 men after the victory of Dunbar. In England all open resistance had been put an end to by the destruction of the last Royalist army at Worcester. It was fortunate for England that at this time the Government had fallen into the hands of a strong man, for, although peace had been restored for the time at home, there soon came an alarm of danger from abroad.

The kings and princes of Europe looked with fear and dislike upon the new Commonwealth, or Republic, of England, and the execution of King Charles I. had shocked and alarmed the friends of royalty throughout Europe. Moreover, the Royalists who had been compelled to fly from England to escape the vengeance of the Parliament, naturally did all they could to turn the governments of foreign countries against those whom they described as lawless and tyrannical men and who had now become masters of England.

Even in countries which had generally been friendly to England a hostile feeling now sprang up. The **Dutch** were Protestants, and many a time had the Dutch people received help from the English Protestants in their struggle for liberty. There was still a large party in Holland who, like the Independents in England, favoured a Republic, and this party was now on the side of the Parliament. But there was also a party which was by no means so friendly.

It is not hard to understand the causes which now made many of the Dutch enemies to the new Commonwealth of England. There were two reasons, very different from one another, both of which led

to the same result. In the first place, it must not be forgotten that the family of the **Prince of Orange**, the most powerful and respected family in Holland, was related by marriage to the royal family of England. William II., Prince of Orange, who was at that time Stadtholder, or Prince of Holland, had married **Mary**, the *daughter* of **Charles I.** and the *sister* of **Charles II.** The young king had spent much of his time at the Dutch Court at **The Hague**, and, naturally, the family of the Prince of Orange were on the side of the king and opposed to the party who



GENERAL MONK.

had put the late king to death. Here, then, was one reason why the Dutch—or, at any rate, some of them—should be enemies to the Parliament.

There was, however, another and a more important reason. The people of Holland, living on the sea and in a country cut up by broad rivers and by innumerable canals, were naturally a race of sailors. Surrounded by hostile nations, their only free outlet to the world was across the ocean. They had, therefore, become great builders of ships, and in these ships they carried on not only the trade of Holland but the trade of

many European countries. The “red, white, and blue” of the Dutch flag was to be seen in every ocean—in the East Indies, in the Mediterranean, at the Cape of Good Hope, and off the coast of North America. Of late, also, Dutch ships and Dutch sailors had been employed in carrying goods to and from our English ports.

But if the Dutch were a race of sailors, depending for their prosperity upon commerce and upon the sea, so also were the English. Since the great discoveries of Elizabeth’s time the trade of England had been growing fast, and English ships had already begun to compete with Dutch ships for the trade of the East and West Indies and of America.

The Dutch saw with alarm the rise of these formidable rivals, and their alarm was the greater because English ships of war had always claimed rights over all other ships in the English Channel, which they now seemed determined to enforce by arms if necessary. English ships of war had for centuries claimed the right to compel all foreign ships to salute them by lowering their topsails whenever they met in the narrow waters of the English Channel. Sometimes the English navy had not been strong enough to compel foreign ships to give this salute, but no English Government had ever failed to claim the right, and Cromwell was by no means less ready to make the claim than any king or queen.

The Dutch saw that their trade as the *carriers* of other people's goods was threatened, and they were determined to fight rather than allow it to be taken from them. They refused, moreover, to submit any longer to the claim of England to compel them to salute. They saw in such an act a sign of their own weakness, which they would not allow to continue any longer.

The Fight for the Carrying Trade.

"He was the first man who declined the old track . . . and despised those rules which had long been in practice, to keep his ship and his men out of danger, which had been held in former times a point of great ability and circumspection; as if the principal art requisite in the captain of a ship had been to be sure to come home safe again."—Clarendon: "Character of General Blake."

It was not long before the unfriendliness between England and Holland, which grew out of the causes which have just been described, led to open war. The English ambassador sent by the Parliament was murdered at The Hague, the seat of the Dutch Government. Parliament, justly offended, showed its anger in words which the Dutch considered to be insulting, and it was not long before Parliament added injury to insult. In October, 1651, it passed the famous "*Navigation Act*," which forbade any goods to be brought into England except in English ships. It was easy to see that this Act was passed solely for the purpose of doing harm to the Dutch, for the Dutch were really the only foreign ships which brought merchandise to England.

The Act, which lasted for many years, was of great importance to

England. It helped to destroy the Dutch carrying-trade, and gave to England by far the largest share of the *carrying trade* of the world. It has now been thought right to do away with the Act, and merchandise may be brought into this country by foreign ships.

There was one part of the Act, however, which some people wish



"GENERAL-AT-SEA" BLAKE.

(From the painting in Greenwich Hospital.)

had never been done away with. This was the part which declared that every English ship must carry as part of its crew a certain number of "*boys apprenticed to the sea*" for a fixed term of years. As long as this law lasted we were always sure to have a sufficient number of English sailors to man our ships both in peace and in war. Now, however, that the "**Navigation Act**" is no longer law, the practice of

taking apprentices on British ships has gone out, and in consequence we find that of the crews of many British ships *fifty* out of every *hundred* are foreigners. This is a great pity, and a very bad thing for the country.

But the first result of the "Navigation Act" was to make the Dutch exceedingly angry with England, and this new grievance, coming on the top of all the others, led to war between the two countries. Cromwell ordered his admirals and captains to make the Dutch ships in the Channel salute the English flag. The Dutch captains refused to obey the order, and fighting at once took place. The war which followed was a very fierce one; for on both sides there were very brave and skilful commanders, good seamen, and crews who showed most dogged courage in battle.

The Dutch admirals were **Van Tromp** and **De Ruyter**. **Monk** and **Blake** were the commanders on the English side. Both **Monk** and **Blake** were soldiers, and it seems strange to think

of them taking command of a fleet at sea; but it was a custom of the time that soldiers should take command of fleets, and "*General at-Sea*" **Blake** did not fight the less well because he went to sea in full military uniform, including his top-boots. The navigation and sailing of the ships were intrusted to "Masters," but the generals took the lead in the fighting.

For some time it seemed uncertain which side would triumph. **Blake** defeated **Van Tromp**, but shortly afterwards **Van Tromp** turned the tables and beat **Blake's** fleet in a fierce action off the Naze, in Essex. So complete did the Dutch consider their victory to have been, that



NAVAL FLAG OF THE COMMONWEALTH.
(Photographed from the original at Chatham Dockyard.)

Van Tromp actually sailed the Channel with a broom at the masthead of his ship, as a sign that he had "*swept the English from the Channel.*"

He had, however, boasted too soon. Within a few months Blake was at him again. A two days' battle was fought off **Portland Bill**, in which neither side gained much advantage; but in the following month—June, 1653—an English fleet under **Monk** and **Blake** defeated and nearly destroyed the Dutch fleet under **Van Tromp**. In July Blake once more defeated his rival, who fell in the battle. The Dutch could keep up the struggle no longer, and in the year 1654 they made peace, admitted the right of the English flag to be saluted, and agreed to the "**Navigation Act.**"

The End of the Long Parliament.

"*Not a dog barked at their going.*"—*Cromwell (On the Dissolution of the Long Parliament).*

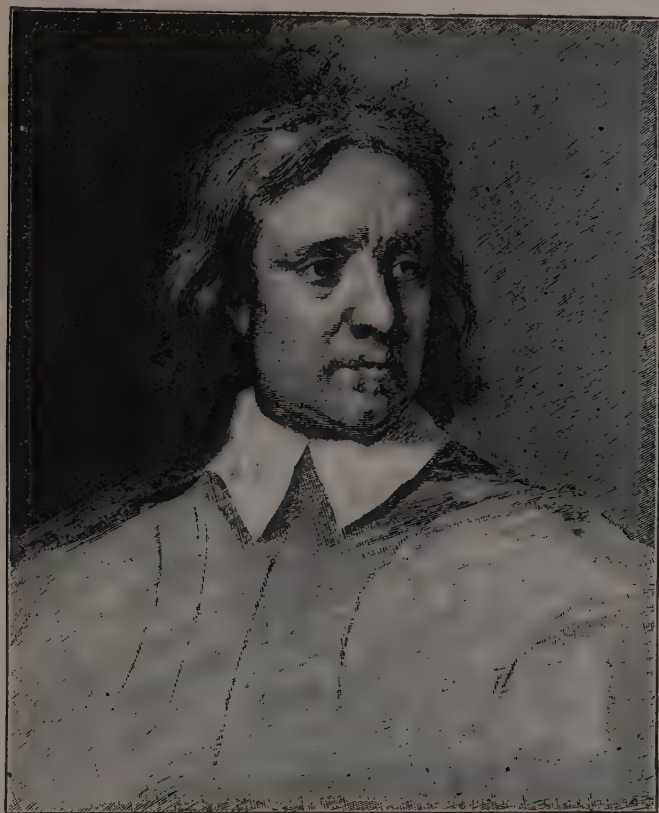
Now that the Government of the **Commonwealth of England** had shown that it was powerful enough to make itself respected, the number of its enemies abroad grew smaller; and those who had been ready to threaten, now thought twice before meddling with a power which had shown itself so strong. But though the Commonwealth of England was supposed at this time to be governed by Parliament—or, rather, by the House of Commons, which was all that was left of Parliament—the real power in the country had gone from the House of Commons and had fallen into the hands of **Cromwell**—the "*Lord-General*," as he was now called.

The **House of Commons**, indeed, had few friends. The Army disliked and despised it; the Royalists, of course, hated it; and even the Presbyterians had long since ceased to respect it, or to wish it well. It had been necessary for the House of Commons to raise heavy taxes, and this had made it unpopular. It was also said that the members had used their power for their own advantage.

But, though the House of Commons had many enemies and few friends, it was not easy to get rid of it. It had been summoned by King Charles in 1640, and, in the year 1653, had already sat for *thirteen* years. The **King** had been executed, the **House of Lords** had been abolished, and there was really no power left which had the right to dissolve the House of Commons and so put an end to its long life.

The members of the House of Commons knew very well that they

were no longer in favour with the country, and they knew, too, that if they once gave up their seats and allowed a new Parliament to be freely elected, very few of them would be chosen. They declared at last that



OLIVER CROMWELL.

they would dissolve themselves, and that a new and free Parliament should be elected ; but as they also declared that the new election was not to take place for *three years*, things were not much changed by their vote. Matters seemed no better than they had been before.

Cromwell saw the difficulty, and understood very well what people

were thinking. There was no one who by law could dissolve the Parliament, and yet everyone was anxious that the Parliament should be dissolved. The Lord-General could not untangle the knot, so he made up his mind to cut it with the sword. On the 20th of April, 1653. Cromwell went down to Westminster, taking with him a small number of old soldiers. He was still, it must be remembered, a member of Parliament himself. He left the soldiers outside, went in, and sat down in his usual place. For a time he listened to the debate. At last his patience gave way. He called **Colonel Harrison** to him, and said: "*This is the time; I must do it.*" Then he took off his hat, and rose to speak.

His speech was of a kind that the House of Commons had not been accustomed to. There were fifty-three members present. Cromwell rated and scolded them like a set of schoolboys in disgrace. He charged them to their faces with all their faults, with their injustice, with their self-seeking, with their neglect of the country, and at length, stepping forward on to the floor of the House and putting on his hat, cried out: "*I will put an end to your prating.*" He stamped his foot in anger. "*It is not fit that you should sit here any longer,*" he said; "*you have sat too long here for any good you have been doing lately; you shall now give place to better men.*" Then, turning to Colonel Harrison, he gave his order: "*Call them in!*"

Prompt and obedient to the word of command, thirty of the general's old soldiers marched into the House, ready to do exactly what their officer told them. Then Cromwell, turning fiercely on the members, began blaming them, one by one, by name for the evil that they had done. "*Corrupt, unjust persons,*" he cried, "*scandalous to the profession of the Gospel; how can you be a Parliament for God's people? Depart, I say, and let us have done with you. In the name of God—go!*"

On the table of the House of Commons there lay then, as there does now, a gilded mace, which is the sign of the House being in session. This mace is borne before the Speaker when he enters the House, and it is, as it were, a *sign* or *symbol* of the authority and power of the House of Commons. But Cromwell had made up his mind that this House of Commons, at any rate, should have no more power or authority. He went up to the table where the mace lay and lifted it up. "*What shall we do with this bauble?*" said he. "*Take it away!*" and he gave it to a soldier. The mace is the symbol of the authority of the House of Commons. **The Speaker** is the head and chief of the House—the man in whom it places its confidence and trust. Cromwell had got rid of the mace; he now got rid of the *Speaker*.

The Speaker was **Lenthall**. We must not forget who **Mr. Speaker**

Lenthall was. It was he who, eleven years before, had knelt before King Charles and declared that he had neither "eyes to see nor tongue to speak, save as the House directed." But this time the Speaker had to deal with a very different man from Charles I. At first he declined to move. "*Fetch him down,*" said Cromwell to Colonel Harrison. Still Lenthall would not budge. "*I will lend you a hand,*" said Colonel Harrison. It was no use arguing with a soldier with thirty armed men at his back. Speaker Lenthall came down, and marched out of the House with the rest of the members. The doors were locked, the Long Parliament was at an end, and everybody—except the members who had been turned out—rejoiced to see them depart. "*We did not hear a dog bark at their going,*" said Cromwell.

The story of the turning-out of the "Rump" of the **Long Parliament** has been told here at some length, because it is a very important point in the history of England.

The Long Parliament had begun its work honestly, fighting for justice and freedom. We have seen how its work ended. From being a protector of freedom, it had become a tyrant. It began by declaring that Parliaments should be held every three years; it sat without a break for thirteen years. It dethroned the king, and declared monarchy to be abolished. It put an end to the House of Lords, and thought that it had made itself the only power in the land; but it had raised up two other powers which were much stronger than itself. It had raised up **the Army**, by which it was at last destroyed, and it had raised up enemies amongst all classes of **English people**, who had become disgusted with the violence, the selfishness, and the injustice of the House of Commons.

His Highness the Lord Protector of the Commonwealth.

"Gentlemen, you are met here on the greatest occasion that, I believe, England ever saw, having upon your shoulders the interests of three great nations, with the territories belonging to them."—Cromwell's Speech to Parliament, 1654.

Cromwell was now the only real power in the country, because he was head of the Army; but, beyond being head of the Army, he had no real office by law. Nevertheless, he decided to do what he believed his friends wished him to do—namely, to call another Parliament.

In 1653 a Parliament was accordingly summoned, but, instead of being a free Parliament, in which the members were elected by the

free choice of those who sent them, the members were really chosen out by Cromwell and his friends, and were mostly taken from the Independent party. One of the members was called by the strange name of "**Praise-God Barebone**," and from him the Parliament got the nickname of "*Barebone's Parliament*." It had a very short life, for it pleased neither Cromwell nor the great majority of the people of England. It found that it could do so little, that it agreed to dissolve of its own accord after it had sat only a few months.

Cromwell now decided that he would make himself ruler of England in name as well as in fact. In December, 1653, a Proclamation was issued declaring Cromwell to be "*Protector of the Commonwealth*." A council of fifteen members was formed to help him, and orders were given that a "*free*" Parliament should be summoned. It must not be supposed, however, that by a "*free Parliament*" was meant one in which Royalists who had taken an open part in the Civil War were allowed to sit. It was not till much later that those who had fought for the king were allowed to take their places once more in the House of Commons.

Cromwell opened the Parliament (September, 1654) as if he had been king, and he quickly made it clear to the House of Commons that, though they were "*free*" in name, they were not free in fact, and that if they did not do very much as he bade them he would do just what King Charles had done in past times and dissolve them. He soon found the House of Commons troublesome, and in five months he carried out his threat and did dissolve them.

Cromwell was now once more sole ruler of the country, and the orders which he gave actually became laws, as if the Lord Protector of England were some Eastern king or sultan whose will was law throughout his dominions. But great power seldom brings with it great happiness. A Roman emperor once said that he wished all Romans had but one neck, in order that he might destroy them all at one blow. The Roman emperor could not gratify his wish; his enemies were many, and he was but one man.

In England in the time of the Commonwealth matters were reversed. The enemies of the new Government were many, and belonged to every party. At last they saw all the power of the State in the hands of one man—Oliver Cromwell, the Lord Protector—and they knew that the life of this one man was the only thing that stood between them and the overthrow of the Government. It was natural, therefore, that the enemies of the Commonwealth should have tried their best to rid themselves of the one life which interfered with their plans, and that plots were made against Cromwell by both Royalists

and by the most violent members of the Independent party, who believed that he had deserted their cause. The plots were discovered, and the plotters were either put to death or were compelled to fly the country; but the danger was clear to all men, and to no one was it more clear than to Cromwell himself.

The Protector felt that unless he had friends in every part of the country whom he could trust, his government would never be safe. He therefore turned to those who he knew were his best friends because their welfare depended upon his own. He turned to the **Officers of the Army**. In the year 1655 twelve of the **Major-Generals**, or principal officers of the Army, were appointed to govern twelve different districts into which England was divided, and thus the country was ruled by soldiers commanded by a soldier, without either king or Parliament.

For a time the government of the **Major-Generals** was strong enough to bring peace at home, and Cromwell was able to turn his attention to matters abroad. The Protestants in **Piedmont**, in the north of Italy, were being persecuted by the Duke of Savoy. Cromwell wrote to **Cardinal Mazarin**, chief minister of the King of France, and declared that if he allowed the Protestants of Piedmont to be persecuted England would be no friend to France. Mazarin was at that time very anxious to get the help of England against Spain. He therefore consented to interfere and save the persecuted Protestants from destruction. It was of this persecution that the great poet Milton wrote the famous lines:—

“Avenge, O Lord ! Thy slaughter’d saints, whose bones
Lie scatter’d on the Alpine mountains cold ;
Even them who kept Thy truth so pure of old,
When all our fathers worshipp’d stocks and stones,
Forget not : in Thy book record their groans
Who were Thy sheep, and in their ancient fold
Slain by the bloody Piedmontese, that roll’d
Mother with the infant down the rocks. . . .

Nor was Cromwell content with helping the Protestants. It was not long before he made war upon their chief enemies, the **Spaniards**. War was declared in 1656. The English troops were defeated when they landed on the mainland of South America, but the fleet succeeded in taking the great island of **Jamaica**, which has been held as a British colony ever since. Blake also added another to the list of his victories by defeating the Spanish fleet, which was bringing a great convoy of treasure from the River Plate. The treasure-ships were taken, and thirty-eight waggons were required to bring the gold and silver from

Portsmouth to London. The success of the country abroad had been so great that Cromwell now ventured to do away with the government by the Major-Generals and, *for the third time*, summon a Parliament.

The End of the Commonwealth.

*"You all did see that on the Lupercal
I thrice presented him a kingly crown,
Which he did thrice refuse: was this ambition?"
Shakespeare: "Julius Caesar," Act III., Scene 2.*

We have said that a Parliament was summoned, but it must not be forgotten that the Parliament of this time meant the *House of Commons only*. There was *no King*, and there was *no House of Lords*. It appeared to many that the time had come when it would be a good thing if England could once more have a **King** and a **House of Lords**. Cromwell himself was one of those who wished to see the House of Lords set up again. He thought that if the House of Commons were able to make laws without anyone to check or interfere with it, the welfare of the country would be endangered. Accordingly, in the year 1657, he decided there should be again **Two Houses of Parliament** instead of one, and he appointed a number of his friends members of the new House of Lords.

It is probable that Cromwell would himself have liked not only to have made a new House of Lords, but to have made a new king, and that he was quite willing to be that king if he could have accepted the crown without danger. However this may be, it is certain that some of his friends went so far as to propose that he should be called "*King*"; and had it not been that the officers of the Army were jealous of his taking such a title, it seems very likely that England would have had a "**King Oliver**."

But Cromwell was, no doubt, wise in refusing to be called king, especially as he already had more power than many Kings of England had claimed or possessed. Although the plots against him continued, he was still able to put down all his enemies, and when the House of Commons ventured to oppose him he at once dissolved it (February 4th, 1658).

Cromwell had now only a few months to live, and during those few months he reigned without a Parliament as an absolute sovereign. Whatever we may think of him, it is certain that at this period he had

made England more powerful and respected among foreign nations than it had been for many years past. His friends were proud of his friendship, and his enemies were afraid to raise their hand against a man who had showed himself so strong both at home and abroad. Never was Oliver Cromwell more powerful and more respected than at the time of his death.

It was on the **3rd of September, 1658**—the anniversary of the battles of **Dunbar** and **Worcester**—that the great Protector died, leaving behind him a name which all Englishmen, whether they be friends or enemies, must always think of as that of a great man. With Cromwell, the real power of the Commonwealth came to an end immediately.

His son, **Richard Cromwell**, succeeded to his office as Lord Protector, and everyone seemed to think it a natural thing that he should do so, but it was very soon seen that there was a vast difference between father and son. The officers of the Army, who had followed the father to victory in many a fierce fight, despised the son, and had no intention of being ruled by him. "Dick Cromwell" was neither a king nor a soldier, but only a quiet country gentleman. Nobody wanted him, and, indeed, it is only fair to say of Richard Cromwell that he did not himself wish to cling to his office if he were not wanted. A Parliament was called on January 27th, 1659, but was dissolved again in three months.

Nothing had been done for the Army, and the Army was determined that it should not be forgotten. Then a strange step was taken. The soldiers thought that it would be a good thing to have a Parliament if the Parliament would do exactly what it was ordered to do. No "Free Parliament" would take orders from the Army, but it was thought that the old members of the "Rump" of the Long Parliament would do anything they were ordered to do, if only they were called back again to their seats in the House of Commons. The proposal was carried out, and *forty-two members of the Long Parliament*, with **Speaker Lenthall** at their head, were brought back from all parts of the country and started once more under the name of the **House of Commons**.

Even now, however, the soldiers found out that they had not got quite what they wanted, for even the Rump Parliament would not consent to take their orders, and, indeed, went so far as to try and interfere with the Army and its officers.

And now, at last, when their greatest enemy was dead, and when the Army and the Parliament were quarrelling between themselves, the **Royalists** once more began to hold up their heads and to hope for success. What they had never been able to win by force of arms

they now thought they might gain from the weariness and disgust of their enemies with the very power which they themselves had set up. The people of England had got rid of the king, not because they hated kings, but because they would not put up with a king who oppressed them and broke the law. Now that they found that a Parliament ruling without a king meant government by the Army, and oppression and law-breaking into the bargain, they were quite ready to go back to the old arrangements, and to try government by **King, Lords, and Commons** once more.

The Restoration.

*"There is noe hope of a peace, or the war to cease,
Till the king enjoyes his right againe.*

*" . . . I can tell that all things will goe well
When the king enjoyes his rights againe."—Cavalier Song.*

How the old government came back is soon told. When we spoke of Cromwell's march into England before the battle of Worcester, we said that **General Monk** had been left behind in Scotland to keep that country in order. General Monk had not only kept Scotland in order, but he had kept his own army in very good order also. He saw that the government in London was weak, and he knew that with an army behind him which would obey his orders he could become master of London.

On the 1st of January, 1660, he crossed the Border into England, and marched southwards towards the capital. At first the "Rump" Parliament claimed him as their friend, but Monk was a wise man, and knew that the hearts of the English people were not with the "Rump" Parliament. He marched into the city of London, and was received in triumph by the people. He called together the Common Council of the city, and declared that he was in favour of a "*Free Parliament*."

Then everybody knew that at last the Long Parliament was at an end for ever. A "*Free*" Parliament was elected, and for the first time for many years the views of moderate men on both sides were heard in the House of Commons. The moderate men were all agreed. It was time to call the king back again; there was no other way in which peace and quiet could be secured to the country.



GENERAL MONK ENTERING LONDON.

A message was sent to Charles in Holland. He agreed to the terms which the Parliament proposed, and Monk promised to support him. On the 26th of May, 1660, Charles landed at Dover, and was received with every sign of joy by the people of England. The Independents and Cromwell's old soldiers hung their heads and grieved over this strange turn of fortune, but Englishmen, as a rule, felt that a great weight had been lifted off the country, and that it was a happy day which put an end to the government by a tyrannical Parliament, supported by a victorious army.

CHAPTER LVI.

CHARLES II.

1660—1685.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF CHARLES II.

- Charles II.**, King of England, son of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria, b. 1630, succeeded to the Crown 1649, became king 1660, d. 1685.
- Catherine of Braganza**, daughter of John, King of Portugal, wife of Charles II., m. 1662.
- James**, Duke of York, son of Charles I., brother of Charles II., afterwards King of England.
- Anne Hyde**, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon, first wife of James, Duke of York, m. 1660, d. 1671.
- Mary**, daughter of James and Anne, b. 1662, afterwards Queen of England.
- Anne**, daughter of James and Anne, b. 1664, afterwards Queen of England.
- Louis XIV.**, King of France.
- Philip IV.**, King of Spain, d. 1665.
- Charles II.**, King of Spain.
- Leopold I.**, Emperor.
- Alexander VII.**, Pope, d. 1667.
- Clement IX.**, Pope, d. 1670.
- Clement X.**, Pope, d. 1676.
- Innocent XI.**, Pope.
- William Henry**, Stadtholder of Holland 1672, afterwards King of England.
- Frederick William** ("the Great Elector"), Elector of Brandenburg 1640 to 1688.
- General George Monk**, Duke of Albemarle, d. 1670.
- James**, Duke of Monmouth.
- Edward Hyde**, Earl of Clarendon, d. 1674.
- Lord Clifford**, d. 1673.
- The Earl of Arlington**, d. 1685.
- The Duke of Buckingham**.
- Ashley**, Earl of Shaftesbury, d. 1683.
- The Duke of Lauderdale**, d. 1682.
- Prince Rupert**, cousin to Charles II., d. 1682.
- Titus Oates**, author of Oates's Plot.
- De Ruyter**, Dutch Admiral, d. 1676.
- Cornelius Van Tromp**, Dutch Admiral.
- Sir Isaac Newton**, b. 1642.
- Sir Christopher Wren**, architect of St. Paul's Cathedral, b. 1632.
- Great Writers** :—
- Abraham Cowley**, d. 1667.
- Samuel Butler**, d. 1680.
- John Milton**, d. 1674.
- John Bunyan**.
- John Dryden**.
- Robert Herrick**, d. 1674.
- William Wycherley**, dramatist.
- Bishop Burnet**, historian.
- Samuel Pepys**.
- John Evelyn**.
- Famous French Writers** :—
- Molière**, d. 1673.
- Corneille**, d. 1684.
- Boileau**.
- Racine**.
- Great Painters** :—
- Cuyp**, Dutch, d. 1672.
- Rembrandt**, Dutch, d. 1674.
- Sir Peter Lely**, German, d. 1680.
- Murillo**, Spanish, d. 1685.

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"The Cabal"
Ministry.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF CHARLES II.

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| <p>1660. Restoration of Charles II.
Tea used as a drink in London.</p> <p>1651. The name of New Amsterdam, in America, changed to that of New York.
Charles crowned and Parliament assembled.
Cardinal Mazarin dies.</p> <p>1662. Act of Uniformity comes into force.
Marriage of Charles to Catherine of Braganza.</p> <p>1664. War with Holland.</p> <p>1665. The Plague of London.</p> <p>1666. War between England and France.
Naval actions with the Dutch.
Fire of London.</p> <p>1667. De Ruyter burns English ships in the Medway.
Milton publishes "Paradise Lost."</p> | <p>1670. The "Cabal" formed.</p> <p>1672. Naval battle at Sole Bay.</p> <p>1673. Test Act passed.</p> <p>1674. Peace with Holland and France.</p> <p>1675. Rebuilding of St. Paul's Cathedral begun.</p> <p>1677. William, Prince of Orange, m. Princess Mary.</p> <p>1679. Terms "Whig" and "Tory" introduced.
Habeas Corpus Act passed.</p> <p>1681. James, Duke of York, excluded from office.</p> <p>1683. The Rye House Plot. Execution of Russell and Sidney.
Princess Anne m. Prince George of Denmark.</p> <p>1684. Tangier abandoned by the English.</p> <p>1685. Charles II. dies.</p> |
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A Fair Beginning.

*"Although for a time you see Whitehall
With cobwebbs hanging on the wall
Instead of silkes and siluer braue,
Which fformerly 't was wont to haue,
With a sweete perfume in euerye roome
Delightfull to that princely traine;
Which againe shal be when the times you see
That the king enjoyes his right againe."*—Cavalier Song.

"The king had got his own again." It now remained to be seen whether all would really be well. There can be no doubt that the great majority of the people of England were truly glad of the "Restoration." Many of them were fond of the old Constitution of England, and though they had taken sides against the king, had been sorry that they were compelled to do so, and would gladly have come to some reasonable agreement long ago. All classes had become tired of being governed by the Army. The faults of Charles I. were forgotten by men who had seen so many acts of violence done since his death. The dead king was now an object of pity and regret rather than of hatred, and the country was ready to welcome the young king all the more warmly because it knew so little about him.

There was, therefore, real joy throughout the land when the king came back; but scarcely had the bonfires gone out and the bells ceased ringing when it was seen that there were still great difficulties

to be got over before peace and contentment could be restored to the country.

None of the Stuarts were wise kings, and **Charles II.**⁽⁸³⁾ was no exception to the rule. Luckily, however, he had learnt something while he was in exile. He had himself suffered so much that he was a great deal more anxious to enjoy himself now that he had recovered

the throne than to stir up new troubles in the country. This was fortunate, for there were many Royalists who would have been only too glad to take vengeance upon their enemies and pay off old scores now that they had the power.

General Monk, however, was the king's most powerful minister, and General Monk naturally did not wish to see his old friends persecuted. Still, it proved impossible to prevent the Cavaliers, who had now come back as members of Parliament, from punishing those who had been actually concerned in the death of Charles I. Ten of the "Regi-



CHARLES II.

(From the mezzotint by G. R. Williams, after Sir Godfrey Kneller.)

cides"¹ were put to death, and many others were imprisoned or driven into exile. The bodies of Cromwell and Bradshaw were taken from their graves in Westminster Abbey, and, in a fit of foolish and unworthy spite, were hanged at Tyburn, and then burned.

But this was the worst that was done at this time, and, for the most part, those who had been in arms against the king in the late

¹ *Regicides*, "killers of the king"—from the Latin *rex* (genitive *regis*), "a king," and *caedere*, "to kill."



THE LANDING OF CHARLES II. AT DOVER.

war were pardoned. **Richard Cromwell**, who had succeeded in escaping to the Continent, was soon forgotten. If he had few friends, he also had few enemies; and, when he returned to England twenty years later, he was allowed to live peaceably to the end of his long life. He died in 1712, at the age of eighty-six.

The **Established Church** was set up again, and **Juxon**, who had been with Charles I. at his death, went back to Lambeth as Archbishop of Canterbury. **Edward Hyde (Lord Clarendon)** became the king's chief minister. Parliament was summoned in the first year of the king's reign. It was agreed that the king should give up some of the old rights of the Crown to levy money, and in exchange large supplies were voted amounting to £1,200,000. **Tunnage and Poundage**—which, as we know, Parliament had refused to grant Charles I.—were now granted to his son for his life.

One other very important thing was done by this Parliament. For the first time the king was allowed to keep up a force of *regular soldiers* in time of peace. Two regiments—now known as the "**Royal Scots**" and the "**Coldstream Guards**"—were kept up after the rest of the army had been disbanded, and the House of Commons agreed to find the money to pay them. We shall see that before long the question of the king's right to keep up a "*Standing Army*" in time of peace became a very important one, and led to most serious differences.

The Dutch in the Medway; or, England Disgraced.

"The alarme was so greate that it put both Country and Citty into a paniq feare and consternation, such as I hope as I shall never see more; A dreadful spectacle as ever Englishmen saw, and a dishonour never to be wiped off! Those who advised his Majesty to prepare no Fleete this Spring deserv'd—I know what—but."—*John Evelyn: "Diary," June, 1667.*

Parliament was now dissolved, and in the following year a fresh Parliament was summoned. The majority of the new Parliament were Cavaliers, and they did far more to interfere with the peaceful arrangements which had been come to than the Parliament of the year before.

Urged on by his ministers, and especially by the **Earl of Lauderdale**—a Scotsman who was full of bitterness against the Scottish Covenanters—Charles now ventured to do what his father had tried in vain



SHIPS OF THE TIME OF CHARLES II.

to do before him, namely, to set up the English Established Church in Scotland. Those who opposed him met with no mercy from Lauderdale; and the **Earl of Argyle**, who was the chief of the Covenanters, was taken prisoner, tried, and executed for resisting the royal will.

An Act of Parliament was passed in the year 1662 which was called the **Act of Uniformity**. It ordered the use of the Prayer-Book in every church in England, and it compelled every clergyman to make a public declaration, saying that he agreed with the form of service used in the Prayer-Book, that he was against the Covenant, and that he believed it to be wrong and unlawful to take up arms against the king on any pretext whatsoever. No less than 2,000 ministers refused to make this declaration, and were turned out of their livings in consequence.



HALF-CROWN OF CHARLES II.

Already the English Independents and all those English Protestants who did not agree with the Established Church, and who were known as "*Nonconformists*," began to fear that the new king was going to prove as great a tyrant as his father, and their alarm was increased when the laws against them were put in force with great severity and cruelty. Indeed, if Charles had proved as obstinate

as his father, there is little doubt that civil war would have begun over again, for Clarendon, his minister, actually went so far as to imprison Nonconformists for refusing to use the same form of service which was used in the Established Church; and an Act called the "**Five Mile Act**" was passed which forbade clergymen to teach in schools or to come within five miles of a town unless they had declared in writing that they would agree to the rules of the Established Church, and promise to obey the king and the bishops without question.

But Charles, though he liked to exercise his power as a king as much as his father had done, was not prepared to risk losing his head in order to get his way. And thus, though there was much discontent on the part of the Nonconformists, matters never went so far as to bring about a rebellion.

But if Charles's policy *at home* were foolish and unjust, his policy *abroad* was still more foolish and more disastrous to the country. **France** at this time was growing fast in power and influence under its

young king, **Louis XIV.**, and already the French were looking with covetous eyes upon the rich territory of **Holland**, which lay upon their north-eastern borders. Charles and his ministers were unable to see that the great military power of France, which already threatened Holland, would soon be directed against England, and that Louis would be all the stronger when he had defeated the sturdy Dutch Protestants and become master of the Dutch fleet and the Dutch harbours. It was a great mistake which led Charles at this time to pick a quarrel with Holland, but when once the mistake was made it was impossible to go back, and war was declared in the beginning of 1665.

But if it were a great mistake to declare war with the Dutch, it was a still greater mistake to declare war at a time when the country was quite unprepared to carry it on with success. The English fleet, ill-equipped and insufficient in numbers, put to sea under the command of **Monk**, who had been made **Duke of Albemarle**. A battle took place in the Downs within full view of the English coast, and our fleet was badly beaten by the Dutch admirals **De Witt** and **De Ruyter**.

King Louis, better advised than King Charles, saw his opportunity in this quarrel between the two Protestant nations, and he was only too anxious that it should continue. At first he had appeared to favour the Dutch, but he now came out in his true colours as an enemy who only awaited his opportunity to conquer their country. In order that he might carry on his own wars without interference, he bribed both Charles and his ministers with large sums of money.

It is hard to think of a more disgraceful condition than that into which the Government of England had fallen at this time. The king and his chief ministers were actually in the pay of the King of France; and, not content with so shameful an act as taking foreign money, they did not even spend what they received upon the service of the country, but wasted it upon their own pleasures and luxuries.

Meanwhile the **Navy** was allowed to go to rack and ruin. Money which should have been spent on stores, shipbuilding, and repairs, was squandered by the courtiers. The sailors received no pay, and the ships were unfit to go to sea. The height of our disgrace was reached in the year 1667, when a Dutch fleet sailed without opposition into the mouth of the Thames, passed up the **Medway** to **Chatham**, and burnt our English ships of war in the very heart of Kent. Not for many a year had England fallen so low as this, and Englishmen felt the shame all the more keenly because they knew that the country which only a few years ago under Cromwell's rule had been mistress of the sea, was still rich enough, strong enough, and brave enough to protect its own coasts if only it were honestly governed.

Pestilence and Fire.

"The pestilence that walketh in darkness; . . . the destruction that wasteth at noonday."—*Psalms* xci. 6.

"We saw the fire as only one entire arch of fire from this to the other side the bridge, and in a bow up the hill for an arch of above a mile long; it made me weep to see it."—*"Pepys' Diary,"* September 2nd, 1666.

The bad management and extravagance of the Court, and the disasters which followed, naturally turned men's minds against the king, and still more against his minister, the **Earl of Clarendon**. Other misfortunes, too, besides our defeats at sea and the mistakes of the ministers at home had overtaken the country, and had fallen with special weight upon the city of London. In 1665 a terrible **plague** broke out in London. The disease had already become known in this country, and many lives had been lost through it; but it was not till the year named that it reached the terrible height which has made the year 1665 so black a one in the annals of London.

It was in the month of May that the plague broke out in its full fury, and as the summer came on its ravages spread more widely every day. The disease was one which is now, happily, almost unknown in the United Kingdom. It is a disease which springs from dirt, bad drainage, close streets, and unhealthy air. In these days we have learnt how to fight against it by making proper drains, using plenty of fresh water, and by letting fresh air even into the darkest corners of our great cities.

But the plague is still known in other countries, and as late as the year 1894 a terrible outbreak took place in the British colony of Hong-Kong. Fortunately, the English Government of the colony was able to use the same wise measures which have proved so great a protection in this country, and by cleanliness, good doctoring, and wise nursing, the plague in Hong-Kong was stopped, though not before five hundred persons had lost their lives. In the year 1897 a still worse outbreak of the plague took place, and the disease raged with fury in the great city of Bombay. Here again, however, cleanliness and good doctoring got the better of it, and a calamity such as that which overtook London in 1665 was averted.

But in London in the year 1665 everything favoured the disease. The streets were narrow and dirty, the people had not learnt the value

of cleanliness, the summer was particularly hot and dry, and the plague spread with terrible rapidity. In most of the cases those who were attacked suffered from boils or swellings in the joints, and so rapid was the progress of the malady that men and women fell down as they walked in the streets, and died in a few hours.

The alarm was terrible. Thousands of people fled into the country, and carried the plague with them into the villages. "Dead carts" went from house to house, carrying the bodies to the great pits, into which they were thrown; fires were lit in the streets, in the hope of purifying the air. London seemed like a city of the dead. On the door of every house which the plague had visited was painted a red cross, and under it were written the words: "The Lord have mercy upon us."

It is to the credit of King Charles that he stood by his people in the time of trouble and refused to follow the evil example set by so many of his courtiers, who fled from the plague-stricken city in the hope of finding safety in the country. At last, however, towards the end of the year, the plague abated, but not till 100,000 people had perished. As many as 8,000 had died in a single week.

Scarcely had the plague ceased when another misfortune overtook the city of London. In 1666, the year in which De Ruyter beat our fleet in the Downs, a **great fire** swept over London. It broke out on the night of the **2nd of September**, in "**Pudding Lane**," in the City. For five days it raged furiously, and the wooden houses, of which there were many in all the streets, burned like furnaces. From the centre of the City to Temple Bar there was one sheet of flame. At last the fire was stopped by blowing up a number of houses with gunpowder; but not before **13,000 houses** and **eighty-nine churches** had been burnt to the ground.

The people believed that the Plague and the Fire had been sent as judgments upon the country, to punish it for the wickedness of the Court. It was not wonderful that the chief minister of the Court, the **Earl of Clarendon**, should have been the first to feel the anger of the people. He was impeached on a charge of high treason in October, 1667, and only succeeded in saving his life by a hasty flight from the country.



The "Cabal"—The Test Act—"Habeas Corpus."

"The Archbishop of Canterbury is called no more to the Cabal, nor, by-the-way, Sir W. Coventry; which I am sorry for, the Cabal at present being, as he says, the king, and the Duke of Buckingham, and Lord Keeper, the Duke of Albemarle, and Privy Seal."—"Pepys' Diary," December 21st, 1667.

Charles now had to find new ministers to take the place of Clarendon. He chose as counsellors **Lord Clifford** and the **Earl of Arlington**, who were Roman Catholics, and the **Duke of Buckingham**, **Ashley** (afterwards **Lord Shaftesbury**), and the **Earl of Lauderdale**. The new Government got the name of "*The Cabal*," because the initial letters of the names of its members spelt the word "cabal"—**Clifford**, **Arlington**, **Buckingham**, **Ashley**, **Lauderdale**.¹ From the time of the "**Cabal**" Ministry the government of England has always been carried on by a small council chosen from amongst the ministers of the Crown. This Council became known before long as the "*Cabinet Council*," a name which it has kept till the present day.

The fact that Charles had taken two Roman Catholics into his Council gave rise to much alarm. The great majority of the people of England were Protestants, who feared the Roman Catholic King of France, and who wished to be friends with Protestant Holland. The king himself declared that he belonged to the Protestant Established Church, but many suspected that he was at heart, if not a Roman Catholic, at any rate a friend of the Roman Catholics. The queen (**Catherine of Braganza**, daughter of the King of Portugal) was a Roman Catholic, and so was the king's brother, **James, Duke of York**. Moreover, Charles had no love for the Dutch, many of whom were Republicans. He found his real friend in **Louis XIV.**, who paid him large sums, which Charles spent upon his pleasures, and who was fast making himself an absolute monarch in France.

It is not wonderful that with these differences between king and people, the reign of Charles II., which had begun so happily, should have ended in strife and disaster. The "**Cabal**" governed no better than Clarendon had done. Charles, with the advice of his ministers, not only entered into an alliance with Louis of France, but actually began a second war against the Dutch. The fighting at sea was, as

¹ *Cabal* is really a Hebrew word. It had already been used to describe a plot or conspiracy, and was now applied to the "council of five" which has been mentioned above.

usual, very obstinate. The Duke of York himself commanded the English ships, and he and De Ruyter carried on a fierce struggle in the Channel. James, Duke of York, was justly detested by the people of England when he became king under the title of James II., but it must be remembered, to his credit, that he was a good seaman, and that he freely risked his life at sea in the battles with the Dutch.

The alliance with France and the war with Holland were not the only things which made Charles unpopular. In 1673 he issued a "*Declaration of Indulgence*," in which he pardoned a great many of those who had offended against the Act of Uniformity. It was a right thing to wish to pardon these men, but Parliament declared that, whether it were a right thing or not, it was done in the wrong way, and that the king had no right to set aside the law even for a good purpose. Charles was compelled to withdraw the Declaration.

Parliament now showed that it was determined not to allow the king to favour the Roman Catholics. An Act called the **Test Act** was passed (1673). By this Act anyone who held any office in the State was compelled to declare himself a member of the Established Church. If he did not do this, he had to give up his office. Two of the king's ministers, **Clifford** and **Arlington**, were, as we know, Roman Catholics. They were compelled to give up their offices, and the "**Cabal**" Government came to an end.

Sir Thomas Osborne, afterwards **Lord Danby**, was made chief minister. Charles was compelled to make peace with Holland, and, despite his wish to remain good friends with Louis, was very nearly forced into declaring war upon France in order to please Parliament and the people. Louis, however, sent an enormous bribe to Charles, which enabled the latter to dissolve Parliament and put off the danger for a time.

In the year 1677 an important event took place, namely the marriage of the heiress to the throne. **James, Duke of York**,⁽⁸⁶⁾ had married **Anne Hyde**,⁽⁸⁷⁾ daughter of the Earl of Clarendon. James had two daughters, **Mary**⁽⁸⁸⁾ and **Anne**,⁽⁸⁹⁾ and in this year **Mary**, the elder, was married to the **Prince of Orange**,⁽⁹⁰⁾ the chief of the Protestant party in Holland and the bitter enemy of Louis XIV. of France. Once more the country hoped that there would be war with France, and once more Charles was bribed into making a secret agreement with Louis. The secret was found out, and Danby, who was said to have advised the king, was fiercely attacked by the Parliament which Charles had been compelled to summon in 1679, and would have been executed had not the king pardoned him.

It was in this year (1679) that the famous "**Habeas Corpus**" Act

was passed. This was an Act the object of which was to protect persons from illegal imprisonment and to make sure that no man should be kept in prison unless he had first been fairly tried and found guilty.

The Act provided that any person who for any cause whatever had been put in prison, might, as a matter of absolute right, demand from a judge or magistrate a "*Writ of Habeas Corpus*," or order to the



THE DUKE OF MONMOUTH.

person who kept him in prison, ordering such person to bring his prisoner up for trial at once, so that if guilty he might be punished and if innocent be set free. Any judge or magistrate who had the right to give a **Writ of Habeas Corpus** when asked to do so, and who refused, was liable to be punished, and to be heavily fined, and the same punishment befell any person who under any pretence whatever kept a prisoner in gaol and refused to produce him for trial when he received a Writ of Habeas Corpus. The name "**Habeas Corpus**" is taken from the two Latin words at the beginning of

the Writ order, and which mean "Take the Body." If we look on, to page 574 of this book, we shall find something more about this famous Act, which has always been justly considered one of the greatest defences of our liberties.

The Protestants now began seriously to fear lest the king should make friends with the Roman Catholics; and many believed that, even if the king did not do so, the Roman Catholics would try and make his brother James king in his stead. The belief was strengthened by the discovery of a real or pretended plot which was revealed by a man named **Titus Oates**. The object of the plot, he said, was to murder the king and destroy the Protestant religion.

It is certain that the greater part, if not the whole, of Oates's story

was untrue; but enough had been said to raise the fears of the Protestants, and many Roman Catholics were imprisoned. The Duke of York himself, the king's brother, was compelled to give up his office as Lord High Admiral. The **Duke of Monmouth**, a son of Charles, was now looked upon by many as the true Protestant heir to the throne. He had no right to come to the throne, for the king had not been married to his mother; but he was a Protestant, and the Protestants declared that they would make him king rather than allow the Roman Catholic Duke of York to be king.

But the friends of Monmouth went too far. They tried to drive the Duke of York from the kingdom, and this the king would not permit. Nor were the people of England, as a rule, ready to allow a man to come to the throne who had no real right to succeed. But all these quarrels and disputes naturally divided the country more and more into two parties. Some of the Protestant party were in their turn accused of a plot known as "**The Rye House Plot**," the objects of which were said to be the murder of the king and the setting up of a Republic. Three well-known men—**Lord William Russell**, the **Earl of Essex**, and **Algernon Sidney**—were charged with having taken part in the plot. **Russell** and **Sidney** were beheaded; **Essex** died or was killed in prison.

This severe treatment of the leaders of the Protestant party strengthened the king's power for the time. The **Duke of York** was put back into his office as Lord High Admiral contrary to the law, the government was carried on without the aid of Parliament, and friendly messages were sent to Louis XIV. At last it seemed as if Charles, more fortunate than his father, had succeeded in making himself an absolute king, but he did not live to enjoy his success. He died on the 6th of February, 1685, declaring on his deathbed that he was a Roman Catholic, and thus adding one more proof to the many which he had given during his reign of the falseness of his conduct to his people.

Little is to be said in favour of Charles, but he had one great piece of good fortune: he was not a good king, but the people of England disliked his rule less than that of the Roundhead soldiers who had governed the country before him and less than that of the Roman Catholic king who was to succeed him. A story is told of Charles and the Duke of York. The king and his brother were walking together. James asked the king if he were not afraid of being assassinated. The king smiled. "No, no, Jamie," said he; "they'll never kill me to make you king." Charles was right; the people of England did not love him, but they soon learnt to hate his brother.

CHAPTER LVII.

JAMES II. AND THE END OF ABSOLUTE MONARCHY IN ENGLAND.

1685—1688.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF JAMES II.

James II., King of England, son of Charles I. and Henrietta Maria, brother of Charles II., b. 1633, became king 1685, deposed 1688, d. 1701.

Mary of Modena, second wife of James II. daughter of James II. and Anne Hyde, b. 1662, afterwards Queen of England.

Anne, daughter of James II. and Anne Hyde, b. 1664, afterwards Queen of England.

James Edward, son of James II. and Mary of Modena, known as the "Old Pretender," b. 1688.

William, Stadtholder of Holland, husband of Mary, afterwards King of England.

George of Denmark, husband of Anne.

Louis XIV., King of France.

Charles II., King of Spain.

Leopold I., Emperor.

Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg ("the Great Elector"), d. 1688.

Peter the Great, Czar of Russia, 1682.

Innocent XI., Pope.

The Duke of Monmouth, executed 1685.

Judge Jeffreys, Chancellor.

The Earl of Argyle, executed 1685.

John Churchill, Earl of Marlborough.

Richard Talbot, Earl of Tyrconnel.

Ministers of James II. :—

Henry Hyde, Earl of Clarendon.

Robert Spencer, Earl of Sunderland.

Lawrence Hyde, Earl of Rochester.

For PAINTERS and WRITERS see lists in the previous and succeeding reigns.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF JAMES II.

1685. James II. becomes king.
Meeting of Parliament.
June 11. Duke of Monmouth lands at Lyme Regis.
June 17, Earl of Argyle defeated.
June 30. Earl of Argyle executed.
July 6, Battle of Sedgemoor.
July 15, Monmouth executed.
Oct. 22, Revocation of the Edict of Nantes by Louis XIV.
1686. Roman Catholics appointed to offices in the Army and Government.
1687. Parliament dissolved.
The Declaration of Indulgence.

1687. James quarrels with the University of Cambridge.
Sir Isaac Newton's great book, the "Principia," published.
1688. June 10, birth of James, known as the "Old Pretender."
June 29, acquittal of the Seven Bishops.
Nov. 5, William of Orange lands at Torbay.
Dec., William of Orange assumes the government.
1689. The Houses declare the throne vacant and proclaim William and Mary joint-sovereigns.

A Bad Beginning.

"It was worse than a crime; it was a blunder."

WE said in the last chapter that the people of England soon learnt to hate their new king, James II., more than they had ever hated his brother Charles. It must not be supposed, however, that because James was more hated than his brother he was necessarily a worse

man. Charles was careless, indolent, fond of pleasure, and self-indulgent.

These were not the faults of his brother. James was a man of courage and activity, as he showed when he fought ship to ship with the Dutch. He had very clear views as to what he thought was right, and was ready to risk everything in order to make his own views prevail. Few kings have been so unfortunate as he in governing England, and few showed so little wisdom in their dealings with the people of England, but it is fair to say of King James that he suffered far more for his mistakes than for his crimes. He was neither a great man nor a wise man, but it is impossible not to feel some respect for a man who was ready to take any risks rather than give up his own ideas of what was right.



JAMES II

(After the painting by Sir Godfrey Kneller.)

But whatever can be said of the courage and earnestness of James, it must be confessed that when he tried to govern England in a fashion which he thought right, but which the people of England had long ago made up their minds was altogether wrong, he attempted an impossible task.

The king was a *Roman Catholic*; nine-tenths of his subjects were *Protestants*. The king looked upon **Louis of France** as his natural friend and ally; his people regarded Louis with fear and mistrust as their

natural enemy. James believed in his heart in the "*doctrine of Divine Right*"—that kings were chosen by God to govern their people, and that the people committed a sin if they disobeyed the chosen of God. The people of England, on the contrary, had long ago made up their minds that the Kings of England could, and should, only rule according to law and with the aid of the two Houses of Parliament. They had gone to war with James's father rather than give up their view, and they had no intention of changing their opinions in order to please James.

Here, then, were all the materials for a quarrel. James hastened to prove that he was not the man to avoid a quarrel. He began by collecting the Customs duties without the consent of Parliament, an act which was directly contrary to the promise given by his father when he agreed to the **Petition of Right**. Like his brother Charles, he stooped to take bribes from the King of France, and by so doing bound himself to be the servant of that powerful king. He chose for his chief minister the **Earl of Rochester**, his brother-in-law,¹ who he hoped would support him in all he did. In the first year of his reign James summoned Parliament.

At first it seemed as if all would go well, for though the Parliament was a Protestant one, most of the members belonged to the Cavalier party and to the Established Church, and many of them had been alarmed by the discovery of the "Rye House Plot" and feared lest the Nonconformists should regain the power which they had possessed during the time of the Commonwealth. Money was voted to the king, and as yet there was no sign of disagreement in either House of Parliament. It was not long, however, before the storm began to gather. The first clouds appeared in Scotland.

The king, who it must be remembered was King of Scotland as well as King of England, gave orders that the laws against the Covenanters in Scotland should be strictly carried out. **Graham of Claverhouse**, the hero of the famous song "*Bonnie Dundee*"—a man of great courage, but cruel and unscrupulous—was employed to do the work. The **Covenanters**, who dared to preach and to hold their services openly in defiance of the law, were persecuted with the utmost cruelty, hunted, and, in many cases, put to death.

The great majority of the people of the south of Scotland witnessed this persecution with feelings of anger and sorrow. It was not long before they took an opportunity of showing how strongly they disapproved of the action of the king. Already there were many in

¹ Lawrence Hyde, Earl of Rochester, was the second son of the Earl of Clarendon.

England who were ready to join with the Scots in resisting King James. The **Independents**—and, indeed, many other Protestants in England—saw with alarm a Roman Catholic king upon the throne, supported by a Cavalier—or, as it was now called, a “*Tory*”—Parliament, and were quite ready to join with the Covenanters in open war.

Sedgemoor.

*“Treason doth never prosper: what's the reason?
Why, if it prosper none dare call it treason.”*

Sir John Harrington: “Epigram.”

In the very first year of the king's reign an insurrection broke out. In Scotland it was headed by the **Earl of Argyle**. In England it was led by the **Duke of Monmouth**, who landed with a small force at **Lyme Regis**, in Dorsetshire. Monmouth and his friends hoped and believed that most of the Protestants, or, at any rate, a very large number of them, would rise and declare themselves in his favour as soon as he landed. But in this he proved to be altogether mistaken. It was true that James was not beloved by the English Protestants, but up to this time he had done nothing to injure them, and the Parliament which he had called together was friendly to him.

Moreover, Monmouth was not the true heir to the crown, and could only sit on the throne by the right of conquest, and this the people of England had no wish to bring about. The only friends upon whom Monmouth could rely were a small number of Nonconformists and those who had some special reason to be discontented with King James. But with so small a number of friends he had no chance of making himself master of England.

We shall see that later on a great change came over the feeling of the country. Ere three years had gone by James had succeeded in offending or alarming nearly every Protestant in England, and when that time came he was easily driven from his throne. But the time had not yet arrived, as Monmouth found to his cost. A few of the poorer people joined him when he landed, but scarcely any man of wealth or influence took his side. At **Taunton** he received a welcome from the townspeople; and his handsome face, perhaps, as much as his cause, won for him the good wishes of the women who welcomed him as he rode through the streets.

But already his fate was sealed. A force, under the command of Lord Feversham, had marched into the west from London, and this force had now been joined by a brilliant and active officer, named **Lord Churchill**, who was afterwards to become famous, under the name of the **Duke of Marlborough**, as one of England's greatest generals.

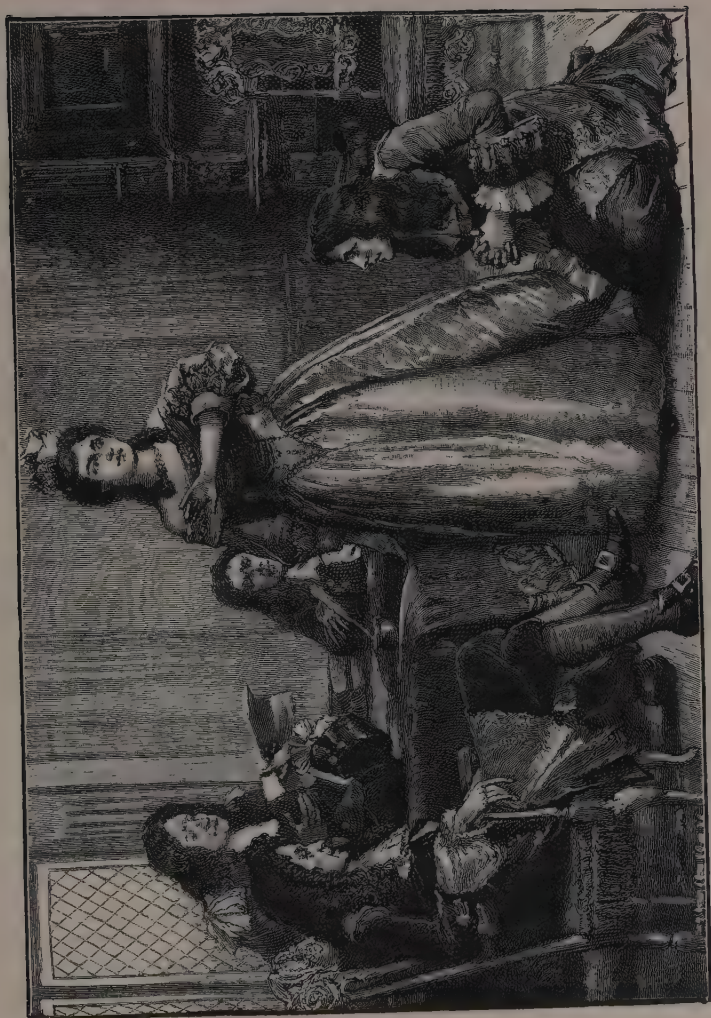
The royal army encountered Monmouth's little force upon **Sedgemoor**, in Somersetshire. The charge of the duke's troops was broken by a deep ditch, known as the *Great Rhine*, which crossed the battlefield, and of which the soldiers were unaware until they tumbled into it in the faint light of the early morning. The king's troops fell upon them in their confusion, and the battle ended in a rout. Many of the insurgents were cut down by the cavalry, others were taken prisoners and hanged on the spot.

Monmouth himself was caught and taken to London. He was brought before King James. In the presence of the king his courage altogether forsook him. He flung himself down on the ground and begged, in abject terms, for pardon and for life. But James would have no mercy. Monmouth's crime, he said, was of too deep a dye to be forgiven. On the 15th of July, 1685, the unhappy duke was beheaded.

The unfortunate men and women whom he had persuaded to follow him now suffered for their rashness. Judge **Jeffreys**, a cruel, savage-minded lawyer, was chosen by the king to go down to the counties of Somerset and Dorset for the purpose of trying those who had taken part in the rebellion. The trials were conducted without justice or mercy. Scores of the persons accused were hanged. Many were condemned and sold as slaves, to be sent to the American plantations; others were fined, robbed, and tortured. To this day the cruelty of Judge Jeffreys is remembered in the west of England, and men still speak of his visit as the "*Bloody Assize*."

The insurrection in Scotland, under the **Earl of Argyle**, did not end more fortunately than that under the Duke of Monmouth. The very week after Monmouth's landing Argyle was defeated, and his army broken up. The earl himself was taken prisoner, and was executed June 30th, 1685.





MONMOUTH BEFORE KING JAMES.

From Bad to Worse.

"The pretended power of suspending of laws and the execution of laws by regal authority without consent of Parliament, is illegal.

"The raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of Parliament, is against the law."—From the "Bill of Rights," 1689.

The defeat of Monmouth and Argyle made James feel much more secure on his throne than he had hitherto done. Having got rid so easily of one set of enemies, he thought himself strong enough to enter into a conflict with another, but this new conflict proved to be a much more dangerous one than that from which he had just come out victorious, for his new enemies were really the people of England. It must not be forgotten that James believed that he was a king *by Divine Right*, and that he was entitled to consider himself above the law and to govern the country without consulting Parliament. He was now determined that he would get rid of all the obstacles which prevented him from carrying out his will and prevented him from ruling as he believed a "king by Divine Right" ought to rule.

There were three things on which James had set his heart. The *first* was the abolition of the "**Test Act.**" The Test Act, it must be remembered, was the Act which had been passed in the reign of Charles II. by which all persons who refused to declare themselves members of the Established Church were forbidden to hold any public office. It was not at all wonderful that James should wish to do away with this Act, for he himself had been driven out of his office by it when Lord High Admiral. Indeed, though the Act was looked upon with favour by the majority of Protestants, it was a bad Act in itself, because it punished men for their opinions and prevented many good and honourable men from serving the country. If James had been content to wait till Parliament had repealed the law, all might have been well; but he was not content to wait, as we shall see.

The *second* thing which James wished to do was to get rid of the **Habeas Corpus Act**. As long as the Test Act remained law it was difficult for him to reward his friends. The Habeas Corpus Act made it hard for him to punish his enemies. He wished to be able to put his enemies into prison and to be able to keep them there without their being brought up for trial, and perhaps acquitted, by a jury who were unfriendly to him.

The *third* thing which James wished to do was to increase the **Standing Army**. Louis XIV. had raised a very strong army, and was

able by means of it to do very much what he liked in France. James longed to have a strong and obedient force in England which would enable him to override Parliament and to use his power as Louis XIV. used his in France.

He now set to work to try and gain all his three objects. A Bill was brought in to repeal the Test Act, but Parliament would not pass it. James therefore decided to act without the consent of Parliament. Following the example of his brother Charles, he declared that he had a *dispensing power* which enabled him to *dispense with* or set aside the law in any particular case.

The judges, among whom was Judge Jeffreys, decided by a large majority that the king *had* a right to use the "dispensing power," and James at once appointed Roman Catholics to a number of important posts. The **Earl of Tyrconnel**, a brave but violent and cruel soldier, was one of those appointed. He was made one of the king's ministers, and soon became his most powerful supporter. The people saw with dismay all the work which they thought had been done by the passing of the Test Act destroyed in a moment.

James now tried to strengthen the **Army**. He pointed to Monmouth's insurrection to show how necessary it was that he should have more troops; but Parliament, believing that the soldiers were more likely to be used against itself than in defence of the kingdom, refused to vote the money that was required. Already the discontent was rising, and there were riots in London. James took advantage of the riots to establish a camp of soldiers at Hounslow, so that he might always be able to call in troops to put down the unruly Protestants in the city.

In 1687 the **Earl of Tyrconnel** was sent over to Ireland as Lord-Lieutenant. It was not long before he succeeded in relighting the fire of civil war in that country. Cromwell, when he had conquered Ireland, had driven thousands of his enemies from the lands which they possessed, and large estates had been given to his soldiers and to other friends of the Commonwealth. In the year 1662 an arrangement or "settlement" had been come to by which a certain number of the Royalists and Roman Catholics had a portion of their lands restored to them.

Tyrconnel, acting on behalf of King James, now determined that he would once more upset the settlement that had been made. He openly took up the cause of the Roman Catholics, and showed the utmost violence against the Protestants. His cruelty and oppression soon plunged Ireland once more into civil war. Nor were James and Tyrconnel content with showing favour to the Roman Catholics in Ireland, in which country they formed the great majority of the people;

but they soon bethought themselves of the unhappy plan of using Roman Catholic soldiers, raised and drilled by Tyrconnel in Ireland, to overawe the Protestants in England.

The Throne becomes Vacant.

"It was even more necessary to England at that time that her king should be a usurper, than that he should be a hero. There could be no security for good government without a change of dynasty."—Macaulay.

Now that James had succeeded in setting aside the Test Act, and in raising in Ireland the army which he was prevented from raising in England, he felt himself strong enough to declare open war against the Protestant party. On the 4th of April, 1687, he issued a proclamation, called "*The Declaration of Indulgence*," by which he did away with all punishments against those who broke the Test Act. Once again the king had done a right thing in the wrong way, and, indeed, it may be said for a wrong reason also. It was a right thing to declare that no man should be punished for his religious opinions, but it was altogether a wrong thing to declare that an Act of Parliament which had been properly made should be broken and set aside merely by the king's will.

Moreover, though it is true that the Declaration of Indulgence gave a pardon to **Nonconformists** as well as to **Roman Catholics**, it was quite clear to everyone that it was the Roman Catholics only, and not the Nonconformists, whom King James wished to benefit. This was so clear that even the Nonconformists themselves showed no pleasure when they heard of the king's declaration, and many of them joined with the Protestants who belonged to the Established Church in condemning James for openly breaking the law and putting himself above the Parliament.

Throughout the country the indignation against the king was very great, and it became greater when he gave orders that the Declaration of Indulgence should be publicly read in all the churches. The bishops of the Established Church point-blank refused to obey the king's orders. The Archbishop of Canterbury and six of the bishops were imprisoned and sent to the Tower.

They were brought before the Court of King's Bench, and tried. A number of the Nonconformists went to them as a deputation, to give them comfort while they lay in the Tower, and the king thus saw that he had at last united against him Protestants of all parties. The trial



THE SEVEN BISHOPS ENTERING THE TOWER.

ended in an acquittal, and the seven bishops were received with enthusiasm by the people of London on their release. Even the soldiers in the camp at Hounslow Heath cheered when they heard of the acquittal of the bishops. Great was the alarm of the king when he learnt that even the army could not be trusted to support him.

But no warning was sufficient to teach the king wisdom. He turned out the Protestant Heads of colleges at the Universities of **Oxford** and **Cambridge**, and put Roman Catholics in their places. He brought Irish troops over, and mixed them up with the English regiments at Hounslow. He thought that by so doing he would be more certain of the support of the army. The very contrary was the result, for the English officers and men were indignant at having their places taken by Tyrconnel's Roman Catholics. It was already clear that the king's throne was tottering.

James hoped that the birth of a son, which took place on June 10th, 1688, would strengthen his cause, and that those who had supported his Protestant daughter, **Mary**,⁽⁹²⁾ as long as she was the next heir to the throne, would change their minds now that a **Prince of Wales**⁽⁹⁴⁾ had been born. But many declared that no child had ever really been born, and that the new Prince of Wales was a baby who had been brought in and adopted by the king as his own to deceive the country. Those who were already preparing to desert the king saw in the birth of an heir another reason for acting quickly. Already several of the ministers and courtiers on whom James most fully depended were writing letters to his son-in-law, the **Prince of Orange**,⁽⁹¹⁾ inviting him to come over, and promising him their support if he did so.

It was not, however, till the end of the year 1688 that **William** thought his time had come to act openly. On the 10th of October in that year, the Prince of Orange made a "declaration" recalling all the illegal acts of James, accepting the invitation of Parliament to take the place of his father-in-law on the throne, and announcing that he was about to land in England with an army and to proclaim a "free and legal Parliament." On the **5th November, 1688**, **William** landed at **Torbay**. An army was sent to stop him, but the **Earl of Marlborough**, who was one of the principal generals, deserted to the enemy, and was followed by many other officers.

James fled from London. The House of Lords undertook the government of the country till the arrival of William. In no part of England did anyone rise on behalf of the king, while the feeling against the Roman Catholics in England was shown by riots in London and elsewhere. William reached London unopposed, and placed his cause in the hands of Parliament. The House of Commons

declared that King James having broken the agreement between king and people, and having by the advice of wicked people violated the laws, and having withdrawn from the country, had "abdicated the Government," and that "*the throne had thereby become vacant.*"

The throne being vacant, the true heir was the baby **Prince of Wales**, but his claim was not allowed. The next heir was **Mary**, the elder daughter of King James and wife of William. Mary, however, altogether refused to become queen unless her husband at the same time became king. Parliament agreed to her request, and **William and Mary** were proclaimed **joint-sovereigns** (13th February, 1689). The unhappy James succeeded in escaping to France, where he immediately sought and found refuge at the Court of **Louis XIV.**, the bitter enemy of England and of the Protestant cause.

CHAPTER LVIII.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY—THE REVOLUTION AND LIMITED MONARCHY.

1689—1702.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF WILLIAM III. AND MARY.

William III., King of England, son of William II., Prince of Orange, and Mary, daughter of Charles I., b. 1650, became king 1689, d. 1702.

Mary, Queen of England, daughter of James II. and Anne Hyde, wife of William III., b. 1662, became queen 1689, d. 1694.

James Stuart, formerly King of England, d. 1701.

James Edward, son of James II. and Mary of Modena, known as the "Old Pretender."

Anne, daughter of James II., sister of Queen Mary, afterwards Queen of England.

William, Duke of Gloucester, son of Anne, b. 1689, d. 1700.

Louis XIV., King of France.

Charles II., King of Spain, d. 1700.

Philip V., King of Spain.

Leopold I., Emperor.

Frederick I., King of Prussia, 1701.

Peter the Great, Czar of Russia.

Charles XII., King of Sweden, 1697.

Alexander VIII., Pope, d. 1691.

Innocent XII., d. 1700.

Clement XI.

Principal Ministers of William and Mary :—

Sidney, Earl of Godolphin.

The Earl of Nottingham.

The Earl of Shrewsbury.

John Churchill, Earl of Marlborough, b. 1650, afterwards Duke of Marlborough.

Sarah (Jennings), Countess, afterwards Duchess of Marlborough.

The Earl of Tyrconnel, commander of the Jacobites in Ireland.

The Count de Lauzun, commander of the French troops in Ireland.

Patrick Sarsfield, defender of Limerick for James, d. 1693.

The Marquis of Argyle, head of the Whigs in Scotland.

John Graham, Viscount Dundee, chief of the Jacobites in Scotland, d. 1689.

The Duke of Schomberg, chief of William's generals, killed at the Boyne, 1690.

Viscount Torrington, English Admiral.

The Count de Tourville, French Admiral, d. 1701.

Robert Paterson, founder of the Darien Company.

Sir Godfrey Kneller, German Painter.

Great Writers :—

John Dryden, d. 1700.

Daniel Defoe, b. 1661.

Sir Isaac Newton, b. 1642.

John Locke, b. 1632.

William Congreve, dramatist, b. 1670.

Great French Writer :—

Jean Racine, d. 1699.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF WILLIAM III. AND MARY.

1689.	The King and Queen assent to the "Declaration of Rights." James lands in Ireland, and calls Parliament to Dublin. May 26, Battle of Killiecrankie. Death of Dundee. Continuance of the war on the Continent.	1634.	Death of Queen Mary. Bank of England founded.
1690.	March 14, a French army lands in Ireland. June 30, Torrington defeated off Beachy Head. July 1, Battle of the Boyne. Founding of English settlement at Calcutta.	1697.	Peace of Ryswick.
1692.	Threatened invasion of England. War with France. The Massacre of Glencoe.	1698.	Peter the Great of Russia visits England. Scottish colony established on the Isthmus of Darien. The King's Dutch guards dismissed.
1693.	War continued.	1700.	Death of the Duke of Gloucester, son of the Princess Anne. Charles XII. of Sweden defeats the Russians at Narva.
1694.	Triennial Act passed.	1701.	The Act of Settlement passed. War with France renewed. The Elector of Brandenburg takes the title of King of Prussia. James II. d. (Sept. 16).
		1702.	William III. d. (March 8).

Whigs and Tories.

"WHIGGAMORES, or WHIGS."—From the Scottish "*whiggam*," used in driving horses. A term of contempt applied to members of an unruly mob who marched to Edinburgh in the 17th century. Afterwards used to describe the political party in England opposed to the "*Tories*."

"TORY."—A name originally given to a class of Irish plunderers among the bogs in the 16th century; afterwards used as a nickname for the political party in England opposed to the "*Whigs*."—*Dictionary*.

It must not be supposed that—now that William and Mary had been crowned King and Queen of England, and James had been driven from the throne—the troubles of England were over, or that peace was really restored. On the contrary, it soon became clear that the clouds which had hitherto only threatened were now about to break in a fierce storm upon the country.

In order to understand what took place during this reign it is necessary to remember how many different **Parties** there were, and how little agreement there was even among those who had joined together to dethrone King James.

The position of the king and queen was a very difficult one. Mary had only succeeded in obtaining the crown by driving her own father from his throne and from his kingdom. It was not easy to feel any great affection for a daughter who had thus triumphed through the misfortunes of her father; and, though the Protestants of England

thought that a Protestant queen was necessary for the good of the country, they bore little love to Mary herself. William was much less loved even than his wife. In the first place, he was a foreigner with unattractive manners, unaccustomed to English ways and thoughts, and caring little for English concerns, except when they helped or hindered him in the great work to which he had given up his life.

It had been the one great object of William's life to oppose and to defeat the power of **France**, which had so long threatened his own native country of Holland, and which had now become strong enough to threaten the Protestant cause in every country of Europe. Year after year William had formed fresh alliances among the Protestant States of Europe. Year after year he had seen his hopes of success destroyed either by the victory of the French troops or by the desertion of one or other of his allies.

But in the darkest times he had never given way to despair, and after each defeat he had set to work again as persistently as ever to thwart King Louis at every turn. Now that he had been made King of England William was far from giving up the great object for which he had worked so long and so hard. On the contrary, he hoped and believed that, now that he had got the power of England behind him, he would be able to continue the struggle against his old enemy King Louis with greater vigour and success than before.

But while the king's object was to use England and the English fleets and armies in the war against France, the views of his new subjects did not at all agree with his own. In England, indeed, parties



WILLIAM III.

were greatly divided. The **Whig** nobles who had taken the chief part in bringing William over, had not got rid of one master in order to set up another. According to their view, it was the duty of the Sovereign to be guided in all things by his ministers. Parliament alone was to decide what money should be spent and what taxes should be voted.

Besides holding all these views, the Whigs held another opinion, which they considered quite as important as any of the others. This opinion was, that the king's ministers, whoever they were, should be chosen *only from among the Whigs*, and that all offices of profit and all the rewards given for public service should be bestowed upon the Whigs, and upon the Whigs alone. As long as King William quite understood what they expected him to do, and acted accordingly, the Whigs were ready to support him, but no longer.

On the other hand, the Tories, many of whom still believed in the doctrine of *the Divine Right of Kings*, and whose chief strength lay among the country gentlemen, supported the king not because they loved him much, but because they loved King James less. Many of the Tories were still suffering from the losses they had had to bear during the Civil War, and they felt that, although "the king had got his own again," they had not received the rewards to which their loyalty and their misfortunes entitled them.

They were strong supporters of the Established Church; and though they were no friends to the Roman Catholics, it was upon the Nonconformists that they looked with the greatest dislike—a dislike which had never died out since the days of the Long Parliament. The Tories, like the Whigs, were clearly of opinion that if the king were advised by ministers at all, those ministers ought to be *Tories*, and that if rewards for public services were to be given to anyone, it was to the *Tories* they ought to go.

We now see how the plan of governing the country by a "Party," which is the plan we still follow, first came into use. From this time forward for many years there was a continual struggle for office between **Whigs** and **Tories**. In the old days of James I. and Charles I. the fall of one of the great parties would have meant the fall of the king, but this was not so now. Whigs and Tories might quarrel as bitterly as they liked, and might oppose King William as much as they dared, but both parties knew that all the time there was a *third party*—that of **King James** and the **Roman Catholics**, supported by **King Louis of France**—always ready to come back if once William and Mary were got out of the way. However much they differed, therefore, on other matters, the Whigs and Tories were agreed upon one point, namely, that the king must be kept upon the throne.

There was also another reason why the fall of a Whig or a Tory Ministry did not bring with it the fall of the king. The Whigs, as we have seen, were the first to declare that the king could only act by the advice of his ministers; and they made it a rule that whenever the king signed his name to an order or a proclamation, a minister should sign his name under it to show that he was *responsible* for advising the king in the matter.

The Whigs went further, and declared that if the advice given to the king proved to be wrong it was the minister, and not the king, who must be punished. And down to this day this has been the rule which has been observed in our government. As soon as this rule came to be followed the position of the Kings of England was changed. They had less power, because they could do nothing but what their ministers advised them to do; but, on the other hand, they were much more secure than they had been, because, whatever happened, the blame and the punishment fell upon their ministers, and not upon them.

The War in Ireland : Enniskillen and Derry.

"It is high treason to instigate any foreigner with force to invade the realm, or any other of the queen's dominions."—Stephen: *"Digest of the Criminal Law."*

The first thing which Parliament did when it offered the crown to William and Mary was to remind the new sovereigns of the grievances which had so often been complained of in former reigns. The king and queen were made to promise, in a solemn "declaration," that they would never *claim a "dispensing power"* or try to set aside or override the law; that they would never *raise money, save with the consent of Parliament*; and that they would never *keep up a standing army in time of peace* without the consent of Parliament. The **Bill of Rights** was put into the form of an Act, which passed through Parliament and became the law of the land (1689).

Having done his part in promising to rule as a "*Constitutional King*," William now looked to Parliament and to the country to do their part and to help him in carrying on the war which was so dear to his heart. Indeed, it soon became perfectly clear that if the new Government were to hold its own at all, it would only be by hard fighting. **Louis of France** was already carrying on a fierce campaign against the Protestants on the Rhine, and the full danger which threatened the country was seen when the powerful King of France

made common cause with the fugitive James, and promised him the support both of troops and money in his attempt to reconquer his kingdom.

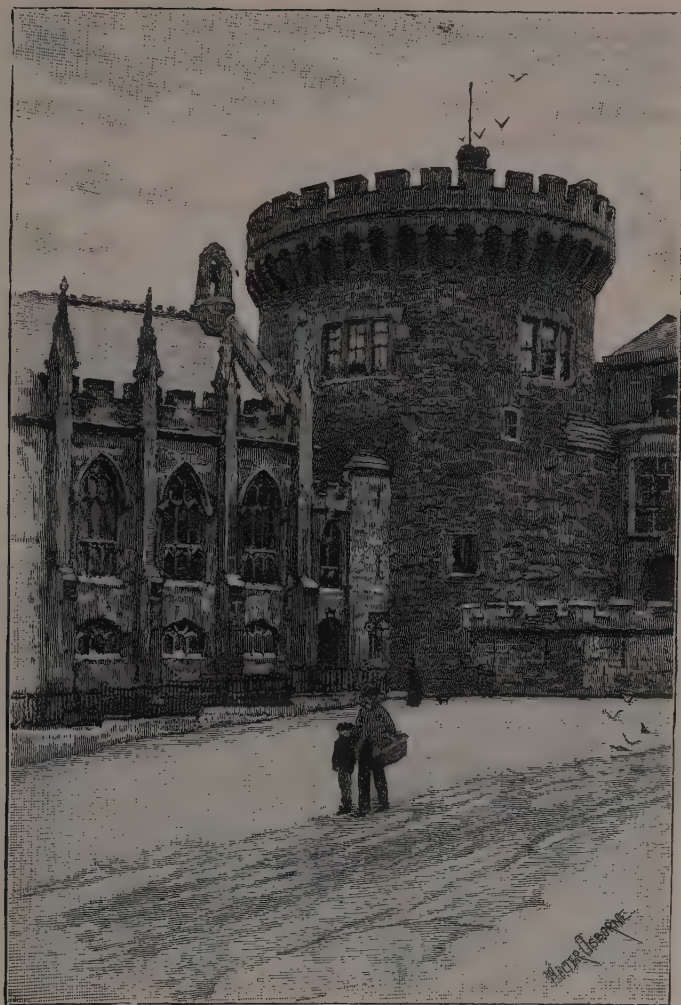
But it was in **Ireland** that the flames of war first broke out. **Tyrconnel** still held that country for King James, and he was not long in showing that, as far as he was concerned, the friends of King William could look for neither favour nor protection. The Protestant troops in Ireland were at once disbanded, and Roman Catholic soldiers enlisted in their stead. The "Settlement" of the land was no longer recognised. In many parts of the country the Protestants were compelled to fly for their lives, and their property was seized by **Tyrconnel** and his friends.

A number of the Protestants took refuge in the town of **Enniskillen**, a still larger number sought safety within the walls of **Londonderry**. **Tyrconnel** at once sent troops to occupy that city, but he was too late. A small party of thirteen of the "*Apprentice Boys*" of Derry, knowing the danger which threatened them and their friends, acted bravely and promptly; without waiting for orders, they shut the gates of Londonderry in the face of the Earl of Antrim, **Tyrconnel's** general. The city of Derry was at once fortified, and thousands of the fugitive Protestants fled to it for protection. The whole country was now at the mercy of **Tyrconnel**, and scenes of savage disorder and bloodshed were witnessed on every side. Houses were burnt, cattle were wantonly killed or allowed to die, and property worth millions of pounds was destroyed.

And now **Tyrconnel** and the "*Jacobites*"¹ made a great mistake, which in the end proved, as it deserved to prove, the ruin of their cause. They called upon the King of France to send troops into the country. James himself came over to Ireland accompanied by French officers, and aided by French money. The Irish Roman Catholics were stirred up against the Protestants. A **Parliament** was called in Dublin, which in a few weeks did all in its power to complete the ruin of the country. The "Settlement" of the land was altogether set aside, and thousands of people were ruined by the change. Base money was issued from the mint in Dublin, a step which soon destroyed the little trade that remained, for no one would take a brass coin worth a farthing in payment for goods worth a shilling or eighteenpence. The Irish Parliament tried to force people to take the false coin, but without success.

Not content with these foolish and cruel measures, the Parliament

¹ The friends of King James were called "*Jacobites*," the Latin form of the King's name being "*Jacobus*."



THE BIRMINGHAM TOWER AND ST. PATRICK'S CHAPEL, DUBLIN CASTLE.

next passed a great "*Act of Attainder*" against no less than 3,000 persons, whose lives and properties were declared to be forfeited. These acts of folly, while they did little to help the cause of King James in Ireland, disgusted even those who were his friends in England. The warmest supporters of the dethroned king were shocked when they heard of the cruelties which were being inflicted on the Irish Protestants, and were indignant when they saw French troops brought into the country.

Meanwhile the brave resistance which was made by the defenders of **Enniskillen** and **Londonderry** moved the hearts of the English Protestants. Londonderry was closely besieged by a large army. Ships were sent from England to relieve the place. A strong boom had been drawn across the harbour, and the ships could not get up the river **Foyle**. They were compelled to return, having done nothing. It seemed as if Derry were doomed. Provisions were almost exhausted, the inhabitants were reduced to eating rats and mice, and it was clear that, in spite of the bravest resistance, famine would soon compel the garrison to surrender. Worst of all, **Lundy**, the governor, proved a traitor, and tried to betray the town to the enemy.

But the courage of the defenders was kept up by their leaders, among the bravest of whom were **Major Baker** and the **Rev. George Walker**, a Protestant clergyman. At last relief came. On the 30th of July, 1689, the English ships were again sighted in Lough Foyle. They sailed up the narrow river, and the two leading ships—the "**Phoenix**" and the "**Mountjoy**"—charged full into the boom. It gave way under the shock of the great ships, and the squadron sailed safely up to the city. Londonderry was saved. On the 1st of August the siege, which had lasted for 105 days, was raised, and the enemy retired. A second victory, at **Newtown Butler**, won principally by the men of Enniskillen, strengthened the cause of the Protestants in the north of Ireland.





THE ENGLISH SHIPS BREAKING THE BOOM AT DERRY

England in Peril.

"Come let us all with heart and voice
 Applaud our lives' defender,
 Who at the Boyne his valour showed,
 And made his foes surrender.
 To God above the praise we'll give,
 Both now and ever after;
 And bless the glorious memory
 Of King William that crossed the water."

Ballad of "Boyne Water."

Meanwhile in **Scotland** the struggle was being fought out as well as in Ireland. **John Graham of Claverhouse, Earl of Dundee**, was for King James, and the *Highland clans*, for the most part, followed his banner. The **Presbyterians** and the **Covenanters** in the south took up arms for King William. The Scottish Parliament, at that time known as the "*Convention*," refused to take the side of Claverhouse, and the earl, threatening them with his vengeance, rode off to raise the clans for King James.

The two armies met in the Pass of **Killiecrankie**. **Mackay**, one of William's officers, was in command of the royal troops. He was defeated, and his army put to flight, by the fierce charge of the Highlanders. But the victory proved of little value to King James, for **Dundee**, the only commander who could get the Highlanders to unite in following him, fell in the battle. The clansmen dispersed to their homes, and before long General Mackay was able to bring the war to an end, and to establish the authority of King William.

The real danger which now threatened England was the presence of King James and his French allies in Ireland; and to Ireland, therefore, William determined to go.

For a time, however, he hesitated. The Whigs and Tories were fighting between themselves in London with almost as much vigour as the Protestants and Roman Catholics in Ireland, and so violent did their quarrels become that William at one time made up his mind that a nation so divided as England seemed to be would never enable him to carry on war against France, and he would have given up the crown and quitted the country altogether if his Whig ministers, frightened at the idea of being deserted, had not implored him to remain.

Parliament was dissolved, and the new House of Commons

contained a large Tory majority. The Tories showed themselves more favourable to William's wishes than the Whigs had been. They consented to allow the king to do what he had long wished to do—namely, to give a free pardon to all those who had taken part against the Crown in the Civil War.¹ This "*Act of Grace*," as it was called, was an exceedingly wise step, and did much to strengthen the position of William upon the throne.

In the year 1690 William, with an English and Dutch army, crossed over to Ireland. Not for many years had England been in so grave a danger. Her best troops were across St. George's Channel. A civil war was in progress in Ireland; it was smouldering in Scotland, and was feared in England itself. It was at this moment that a great French fleet, under the command of Admiral Tourville, appeared in the Channel.

Lord Torrington, with an English and Dutch fleet, encountered Tourville off **Beachy Head**. After a long action the English and Dutch were defeated. Torrington was compelled to take refuge in the Thames, and the French fleet became complete master of the Channel. Luckily no French troops were ready to be landed, and the danger soon passed away.

Within a few days after the defeat off Beachy Head, news reached

¹ The Regicides who had actually taken part in bringing about the execution of Charles I. and a few others were excepted by name.



JOHN GRAHAM OF CLAVERHOUSE, VISCOUNT DUNDEE.
(From the painting by Sir Peter Lely.)

England of a great victory won upon the **River Boyne** by King William over the army of King James, commanded by James himself. The **battle of the Boyne**, which was fought on **July 1st, 1690**, was the death-blow to the hopes of King James. He fled from the field of battle, hurried through Dublin to Waterford, and took ship to France never to return.

The war which followed in Ireland ended in the complete defeat of the Jacobites. Just a year after the battle of the Boyne, the authority of King William had been established throughout Ireland. But the bitter memories of the terrible struggle on Irish soil have remained to this day, and are a sorrowful result of the war.

Fighting It Out.

"I propose to fight it out on this line, if it takes all summer."—
General U. S. Grant.¹

William was now at last free to carry out the wish so dear to his heart, and to continue the war against France. A certain number of English troops were sent over to Holland, where they took part with varying success in the battles and sieges in Flanders. Even now, however, it was plain that William was by no means safe on his throne. As if it were not enough that father and daughter should be bitter enemies, a quarrel sprang up between **Queen Mary** and her sister **Anne**.

Among the closest friends of the Princess Anne was **Sarah Jennings**, who, by her marriage with Lord Churchill, had become **Countess of Marlborough**. Sarah was an exceedingly clever, ambitious, and intriguing woman, who made many bitter enemies by her sharp tongue, and who was always ready to pay back hatred with hatred. She gained a complete mastery over the Princess Anne, whose slow wits were no match for those of her clever and active favourite. Nothing could be closer than the friendship between Anne and Sarah, and for years the Princess Anne used to write letters to the Lady Marlborough beginning "*My dear Mrs. Freeman*," the Countess writing back to "*My dear Mrs. Morley*."

It was not wonderful, therefore, that when **Marlborough** fell into

¹ Telegram sent by General Grant to President Lincoln during the American Civil War, General Grant's pertinacity led to the complete triumph of the Federal cause.

disgrace, his wife's dearest friend, the Princess Anne, should suffer also. Marlborough, an ambitious man, who had made himself very popular with the English soldiers under his command, was jealous of the Dutch generals, to whom William showed his special favour. The earl believed that he had not received the rewards to which his merits entitled him, and, angry and discontented, he prepared a second time to betray his king. He began to write letters to King James in France, declaring that the time would soon come when James could safely return to his throne; and, what was even more serious, he persuaded the Princess Anne to add her letters to those which he himself sent.

Nor was this the greatest treachery of which Marlborough was guilty, for it is certain that, on a later occasion, he actually went so far as to inform the French of an intended English expedition against Brest, and that the information which he gave helped to bring about the defeat of the English, and caused the loss of hundreds of English soldiers. It is not wonderful, therefore, that when Marlborough's treachery was discovered, he and his wife were disgraced and dismissed from Court. The Princess Anne took up the cause of her favourite, and a bitter quarrel broke out between the Queen and her sister. There can be no doubt that, if things had turned against William, Marlborough would have openly deserted to King James.

But events now took place which once more destroyed the hopes of the Jacobites. In the year 1692 a great French fleet was collected for the invasion of England. James fully believed that this time he would return in triumph to his throne; but, with his usual want of wisdom, he sent over a proclamation to England declaring that everybody who did not join him at once would be held a traitor, and naming hundreds of Englishmen whom he declared he would never pardon. This was not the way to make friends, and all parties joined heartily in the preparations which were made to resist the king who was coming with threats of punishment in his hand, and with a French army at his back.

The English and Dutch fleets united, and, under the command of **Admiral Rooke**, and in superior numbers, attacked the French under **Tourville** off **Cape La Hogue** (May, 1692). The French fleet was broken to pieces, and many of the ships were taken or driven ashore. Once more the danger of invasion was at an end.

The war in Flanders, however, continued with little profit or advantage to England, and at the battle of **Steinkirk** (July, 1692) a large number of the English soldiers were killed. The English at home blamed the Dutch general for the defeat, and loud murmurs

were heard against the favour which the king showed to the Dutch generals and the Dutch troops. Indeed, as the war continued, and the expense became greater and greater, the discontent in England grew rapidly. For the first time the country had to run heavily into debt to pay its expenses, and it seemed as if all the money which was spent brought no return but defeat and disappointment.

But William was determined to continue the war at any cost. If the *Tories* would not help him any longer, he was determined to try what the *Whigs* would do. A Whig Government was formed, in which **Lord Somers**, **Lord Halifax**, **Lord Russell**, and **Lord Wharton** became the principal ministers. The king asked for money. Parliament, as usual, declared that, if he wanted money, he must give something in return. They, therefore, asked him to agree to an Act which limited the length of a Parliament to *three years*.¹ The king, very much against his will, was forced to give his assent (1694).

The Last Years of King William.

"To the glorious, pious, and immortal memory of his late Majesty King William III."—*Whig Toast*.

"To the king over the water."—*Jacobite Toast*.²

It was in 1694 that **Queen Mary** died, and William now reigned as the sole sovereign of the country. With the help of the Whigs he continued the war, and this time the English troops were more successful than before, and the capture of the strong fortress of **Namur**, in 1695, was looked upon as a great triumph. The king was received with enthusiasm on his return to England, and the Parliament, which was summoned, supported the Whig Ministry which had been so fortunate in the war.

The **Jacobites**, unsuccessful in arms, now attempted to get rid of their enemy by other means. Various plots against the life of the king were discovered, and their authors punished. The discovery of these plots made William's position stronger than it had been before, and when at last peace was signed at **Ryswick**, in September,

¹ The "Triennial Bill."

² When called upon to drink the health of the king or queen at public banquets, the Jacobites often passed their glass over a glass or bottle of water standing on the table before drinking. They declared that they thus drank the health of "the king over the water," by which they meant the Pretender across the Channel in France.

1697, the country seemed at last agreed in its support of the king and of his Whig ministers.

It is, however, always the case in a country which is governed by parties that, when one quarrel between the two contending factions has been settled, something fresh to quarrel about will certainly be found before very long. The *Tories*, who were out of office, lost no opportunity of calling attention to all the mistakes which they said were made by the *Whigs*, who were in office. Above all, they sought to create discontent against the king on account of the number of Dutch troops which he still kept in the country. They declared, indeed, that the army was altogether too big, and that now peace had been made it ought to be reduced; but they specially insisted that William's Dutch soldiers should be sent out of the country.

The English people were easily persuaded to agree with this view, and, to the great disgust of King William, a Bill was actually carried through the House of Commons declaring that the army must be made up only of Englishmen. The king, who saw himself deprived of the Dutch guards whom he trusted, and to whom he owed so much, declared that he would leave a country which had shown itself so ungrateful, and it was with great difficulty that Lord Somers persuaded him to give up his intention.

The *Tories*, however, had now got the majority in Parliament, and the Whig ministers were once more defeated. For a time William and his ministers continued to fight against the majority, but at last the king gave up the attempt in despair, and dissolved Parliament in



QUEEN MARY.

1700, and a new *Tory Ministry* was formed, of which the **Earl of Rochester** and **Lord Godolphin** were the heads. The chief work which was done by this Parliament was to pass what was called the "**Act of Succession**" (1701), by which it was provided that, in the event of the death of the Princess Anne without heirs, the crown of England should go to the next *Protestant heir*, and not to the "**Pretender**,"⁽⁹¹⁾ as the son of James II. was called.

In 1701 the war on the Continent broke out again, and, as before, William longed to join it, and to strike one more blow at his old enemy **Louis XIV.** He accordingly sent over 10,000 troops to Holland, under the command of **Marlbrough**, who had now been restored to favour, and he shortly afterwards crossed over himself to the Continent. It was at this time (1701) that poor **James II.** died in exile at St. Germain, in France.

He left his cause to his son. Whether that son, if he had been wise, might some day have recovered his father's throne is uncertain, but the young prince not only showed no wisdom himself, but had the misfortune to possess very unwise friends. **Louis XIV.** immediately acknowledged the young Prince James as **King of England.** The people of England, who had struggled so long to be rid of the father, and who had declared through their Parliament that neither father nor son should ever reign in their country, were furious when they saw the young prince adopted as the open friend of the enemy of England.

The war, which up to this time had been unpopular, was now generally approved. It was felt that King William must be supported at any cost. A new Parliament was summoned. It was known that the Whigs would support the king in continuing the war, and the **Whigs**, therefore, became once more powerful in both Houses of Parliament. The great majority of the nation seemed, for the second time, united in their determination that another **James Stuart** should not reign in England.

At the very time, however, when the hopes which William had so long cherished seemed about to be fulfilled, there came an end to all his plans. On the **20th February, 1702**, the king, as he rode to Hampton Court to hunt, met with an accident. His horse fell, it is said, upon a mole-hill, and the king suffered injuries from which he never recovered. Fever set in, and he died in a fortnight.

He was a man with few friends and many enemies: with many faults, but with some great virtues. He was a king to whom, whatever his faults, the cause of liberty and good government in this country owes a deep debt of gratitude. The enemies of England for many a year were accustomed to drink to the health of "*The little gentleman in*

black”—the mole whose crumbling mound caused the fall, and brought about the death of William of Orange.

But scarcely was the king in his grave when every Englishman who cared for good government, for religious freedom, and for the independence of England, recognised in William of Orange one of our greatest sovereigns. And we in these days have certainly no reason to value less highly than our ancestors the work of this silent, determined, unpopular Dutchman.

CHAPTER LIX.

ANNE—THE LAST OF THE STUARTS.

1702—1714.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF
QUEEN ANNE.

Anne, Queen of England, second daughter of James II. and Anne Hyde, b. 1664, became queen 1702, d. 1714.

George, brother of the King of Denmark, husband of Anne, m. 1683, d. 1708.

Sophia (the Electress) of Hanover, heiress to the throne, granddaughter of James I., d. 1714.

George, son of the Electress Sophia, afterwards Elector of Hanover and King of England, b. 1660.

James Edward Stuart (the Old Pretender), son of James II. and Mary of Modena.

Louis XIV., King of France.

Philip V., King of Spain.

Leopold I., Emperor, d. 1705.

Joseph I., Emperor, d. 1711.

Charles VI., Emperor.

Frederick I., King of Prussia, d. 1713.

Frederick William I., King of Prussia.

Peter the Great, Czar of Russia.

Charles XII., King of Sweden.

Clement XI., Pope.

John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough.

Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough.

Principal Ministers of Anne:—

Sidney, Earl of Godolphin, d. 1712.

Robert Harley, afterwards Earl of Oxford.

Charles Talbot, Duke of Shrewsbury.

Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke.

Sir Robert Walpole, b. 1676, afterwards Prime Minister.

Prince Eugene of Savoy.

Admiral Sir George Rooke, d. 1709.

Dr. Sacheverell.

Sir Isaac Newton, b. 1642.

Sir Christopher Wren, b. 1632.

Great Writers:—

Daniel Defoe, b. 1661.

Matthew Prior, b. 1664.

Jonathan Swift, b. 1667.

Sir Richard Steele, b. 1671.

Joseph Addison, b. 1672.

Alexander Pope, b. 1688.

Great Painters:—

Watteau (French).

Sir Godfrey Kneller (German).

William Hogarth (English), b. 1697.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF QUEEN ANNE.

1702. Anne becomes queen.
Marlborough given command of the army.

Spanish treasure-ships captured at Vigo.
1704. Rooke takes Gibraltar.
Battle of Blenheim.

1705. Whig Government.

1706. Battle of Ramillies.

Mrs. Masham (Abigail Hill) supplants the Duchess of Marlborough as Anne's favourite.

Prince Eugene's victory at Turin.

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| 1707. The Act of Union passes the Parliaments of Scotland and England.
Meeting of the first Parliament of "Great Britain."
1708. Battle of Oudenarde.
1708. Death of the queen's husband, Prince George.
Birth of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.
Capture of Minorca.
1709. Battle of Malplaquet.
Sacheverell riots.
Defeat of Charles XII. of Sweden at Pultowa. | 1710. Fall of the Whig Ministry.
Return of Marlborough to England.
1711. Disgrace of the Duchess of Marlborough.
Dismissal of the duke.
Creation of twelve peers by the Tories.
1712. Death of Richard Cromwell.
1713. Peace of Utrecht.
1714. Death of the Electress Sophia (June 8).
Death of Queen Anne (August 1).
Proclamation of George I. |
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The Queen and her Councillors.

"I am in such haste I can say no more but that I am very sorry dear Mrs. Freeman will be so unkind as not to come to her poor unfortunate, faithful Morley, who loves her sincerely, and will do so to the last moment."—Queen Anne writing to the Duchess of Marlborough (1706).

We now come to the reign of **Queen Anne**,⁽⁹⁸⁾ the last of the Stuarts. In order to understand the events of this reign it is necessary to remember exactly who Queen Anne was, and what was her claim to the throne. Anne was the *second daughter* of **James II.**, and *sister* of **Queen Mary**, whose husband—William of Orange, or William III.—had just died. By the rule which had always been observed in England the crown would by right have gone on the death of James II. to his son, **James Edward**, Prince of Wales.

But we have already seen how the leaders of the English Parliament had, by means of a "Revolution," altered the descent of the crown, and placed Mary upon the throne instead of her brother. Now that William and Mary were dead, and had left no children, those who had made the Revolution were determined that they would not lose the advantages which they had taken so much trouble to obtain.

In the last reign the **Act of Succession** had been passed which declared that the crown should only go to a *Protestant*, and everybody except the Jacobites now looked upon Queen Anne as the right and proper person to occupy the throne. But though everything went off peaceably, and the new queen was crowned without anyone objecting, it must not be forgotten that there were still in England a good many friends of the Jacobite cause, and that in Scotland and Ireland the Jacobites were far more numerous than in England. It was all very well for Englishmen to speak of the young prince as the "Pretender,"

and to declare that he was not even the son of James II., but as long as the "Pretender" could find friends ready to fight for him in England, and could rely upon the help of France, the most formidable of England's enemies, he was always a person to be feared.

The fact, too, that Queen Anne, like her sister, left no children to succeed her did much to strengthen the Jacobite cause, and, as the years passed by, the danger to those who had brought about the Revolution greatly increased. But the claims of the "Pretender" to the crown of England were not the only causes of trouble during Queen Anne's reign.

The division between the two great parties of **Whigs** and **Tories** had grown sharper than ever, and the quarrels and rivalries of the two parties became fiercer every year. The **Whigs**, who had been the real authors of the Revolution, were determined that they would keep in their own hands all the power which their

success had brought them. At home it was their object to limit the power of the Crown and to strengthen that of the ministry. Abroad they were determined to continue the war which William III. had begun.

The **Tories**, on the other hand, were ready to give more power to the king or queen than were the Whigs. Their chief supporters were to be found among the members of the *Established Church*. They did not like the war, and were constantly trying to put a stop to it. They had been willing to support King William when James was alive, and they were ready to support Queen Anne as long as she lived, but



QUEEN ANNE.

(From the mezzotint by J. Smith, after Sir Godfrey Kneller.)

they had no great love for the next heirs to the crown, namely, the Electress **Sophia** ⁽⁸⁹⁾ and her son **George**; ⁽⁹⁵⁾ and many of their leaders would rather have seen the "**Pretender**" made king than allow the **Elector of Hanover** to be put upon the throne by the Whigs.

We have already seen how Queen Anne had quarrelled with her sister Mary, and how the cause of the quarrel had been Mary's dislike for the **Duchess of Marlborough**. Now that Anne was queen it was not wonderful that her friend the duchess should become a very powerful person. Indeed, at the beginning of the reign the two most powerful people in the whole of England were, without doubt, the **Duke and Duchess of Marlborough**. Before she came to the throne Anne had found most of her friends among the Tories, of whom Marlborough was one, and it was to the Tories, therefore, that she looked for her advisers. A ministry was formed, of which **Lord Godolphin**, a son-in-law of the Duke of Marlborough, was the head, and nearly all the Whigs were turned out of office.

But on one very important point the Duke of Marlborough differed from the other advisers of the Queen. Marlborough was a soldier, and both as a soldier and as a statesman he wished to continue the war with France, and, as a soldier, no doubt he was ready to go on fighting battles in which he felt sure that he could earn glory and distinction. But as a statesman he wished to continue the war for another reason: he believed that if Louis XIV. of France were once allowed to become the master of Europe, it would not be long before he would also be master of England, and he felt therefore that it was most important that the whole power of England should be used to help those who were in arms against the French king.

The War with France.

*"He is a soldier fit to stand by Cæsar,
And give direction."*

Shakespeare: "Othello," Act II., Scene 3.

Space does not permit us to go into all the particulars of the great war which raged in Europe during the reign of Queen Anne, but it would be quite impossible to tell the story of the reign without saying something about the war, for its consequences are to be felt and seen at the present day.

The war is known as the "**War of the Spanish Succession**," and it was so called because one of the chief reasons for which it was said to be

ought was to fix the "*Succession to the throne of Spain.*" King Louis of France wished to make his grandson King of Spain; the enemies of France were determined that this should be prevented, or that, if it could not be prevented, it should at least be declared that, whatever happened, the same person should never be both King of France and King of Spain. We have only got to look at the map of Europe to see how dangerous it would have been to any country which happened to be on bad terms with France, if the King of France had been master, not only of his own broad dominions, but also of the great Spanish peninsula which shuts in the western end of the Mediterranean Sea.

But though the quarrel about the Spanish crown gave its name to the war, the war was really fought by the people of England, Holland, and some of the German States to protect themselves from the powerful and ambitious King of France. **LOUIS XIV.**, without doubt, fought for glory and the love of conquest, and Marlborough was right when he advised the queen that it was the duty and interest of England to help those who fought against King Louis.

At the beginning of Queen Anne's reign, so great was the power of Marlborough, and so great was his influence over the queen, that, though Marlborough himself was a Tory, though the queen was a friend of the Tories, and though her ministers were Tories, the duke succeeded in persuading both the queen and her ministers to go on with the war, and by so doing to please the Whigs.



JOHN CHURCHILL, DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.
(From the mezzotint by J. Smith, after Sir Godfrey Kneller.)

The war itself must always be memorable in the history of England. For the first time since the use of gunpowder became general, an English commander showed himself to be a real master of the art of war. It may probably be said with truth that the **Duke of Marlborough** was the greatest general this country ever produced, and his greatness as a soldier was recognised, not only by his own countrymen, but by every nation in Europe, whether friend or foe. The French feared him, and his name became a household word in France, where young and old caught up the tune of the famous song, "*Marlbrook s'en va-t-en guerre*."¹

The Dutch and the Protestants of Germany, however jealous they might be of a foreigner, agreed to place the duke at the head of their armies, knowing that he, and he alone, could lead them with success against the experienced generals of Louis XIV.

Indeed, the genius of Marlborough showed itself almost as much in his dealings with the Dutch and German generals with whom he had to act, as in the skill with which he led his armies into battle. The Dutch leaders especially, slow in their movements, jealous of interference, and often mistrusting their English allies, gave the duke the greatest trouble, and it was only by patience, by skilful flattery, and by persuasion—sometimes accompanied by bribes—that Marlborough was able to keep together the mixed army under his command.

One great man, however, proved to be an exception to the general rule. In **Prince Eugene of Savoy** Marlborough found a skilful and devoted ally, on whom he could always depend, and from whose jealousy he had nothing to fear.

The Triumph of Marlborough.

"Great praise the Duke of Marlborough won.

Southey: "*After Blenheim*."

The first battle in the war was a surprise to all Europe. The French armies, so long victorious, were considered almost invincible. The French generals were reckoned to be the most experienced and the most skilful in Europe. Great, therefore, was the rejoicing in England when the news arrived that on the **13th of August, 1704**, the Duke of

¹ "*Marlbrook s'en va-t-en guerre*" ("Marlbrook has gone to the wars"). The air is still very well known to us in England under the title of "We won't go home till morning," with the familiar chorus of "He's a jolly good fellow."



CHARGE OF MARLBOROUGH'S HORSE AT THE BATTLE OF BLENHEIM.

Marlborough and Prince Eugene had totally defeated a great French army at **Blenheim**, a village lying on the river Danube, in Bavaria.

Two years later another great victory at **Ramillies**, in Belgium (May 23rd, 1706), compelled the French to withdraw from the Netherlands. A victory by **Prince Eugene** at **Turin**, in the north of Italy, drove the French out of that country. On every side Louis, so



THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR FROM ALGECIRAS.

often victorious, saw himself defeated. But France was then, as she is now, too great and strong a nation to be really beaten in a single campaign.

The year after the victory of Ramillies the French gained several successes over the Allies, and in the following year (1708) an expedition was again prepared for the purpose of bringing over the "Pretender" and invading England. Happily, the "Pretender" fell ill, and the expedition came to nothing. But it was plain that the war must be continued. Marlborough once more took the command, and on the 11th July defeated the French at **Oudenarde**, a town on the river Scheldt, in Holland, and the victory was followed by the siege and capture of the strong fortress of **Lille** (9th December, 1708).

In 1709 the last and fiercest of the four great battles in which Marlborough proved victorious was fought at **Malplaquet**, in Belgium (September 11th). The losses on both sides were very great, that of the Allies amounting to no less than 20,000 men.

The victories of Marlborough will always be remembered—and justly remembered—by the people of England. They were the means of preserving our country and the other Protestant States from being crushed by the great military power of France. Our free government and our present line of sovereigns are among the results which we owe to the genius of Marlborough and the bravery of his troops. The names of "**Blenheim**" and "**Ramillies**" have long been kept alive in the Royal Navy, and to this day are borne by two of the most powerful of our warships.

But there was one other victory won in the same year as that in which the battle of Blenheim was fought, which, though it was gained with little fighting and little loss, has left us a prize almost as great as that which Marlborough's splendid campaign secured.

We have on the opposite page a picture of the noble outline of the **Rock of Gibraltar**, the huge fortress which guards the western entrance to the Mediterranean, and on the highest point of which the flag of Britain flies. It was in the year 1704 that **Admiral Sir George Rooke**, being with his fleet in the Mediterranean, attacked, and captured almost without resistance, the fortress of Gibraltar, then in the hands of the Spanish allies of Louis XIV.

From that day to this Gibraltar has remained in British hands. For many years it guarded the Straits, and was the most important fortress in all the British Empire. It remains as a great monument of our success in the days of Queen Anne, and it may one day become again as important and valuable a fortress as it was in days gone by.¹

The Tories in Office.

*"When royal Anne became our queen,
The Church of England's glory,
Another face of things was seen,
And I became a Tory."*

"The Vicar of Bray," written 1720.

But while Marlborough had been so successfully carrying on the war abroad, his position at home had been growing weaker and

¹ The fortress of Gibraltar, having been taken by Sir George Rooke in 1704, was ceded to Great Britain by Spain by the Treaty of Utrecht, signed in the year 1713.

weaker. The Tories, as we have seen, disliked the war from the very beginning, and it was only Marlborough's great influence with the queen which had enabled him to carry it on at all.

Gradually the duke found that his old friends were leaving him, and that the Tories in the House of Commons lost no opportunity of making attacks upon him. This naturally led him to make friends with the Whigs, who he knew would support him in carrying on the war. In the year 1707 he persuaded the queen to call several of the Whigs into the ministry. A few of the Tories, among whom were **Harley**, afterwards known as **Earl of Oxford**, and **St. John**, afterwards known as **Lord Bolingbroke**, remained in the ministry. But it has always been found difficult for a Government to succeed when its members are not really agreed, and it soon became clear that the Whigs and Tories in the new Government were not agreed.

Harley was the first to see that the time had come when the power of the Duke of Marlborough over the queen might be destroyed. Marlborough's power had come through his wife, and his enemies now tried to destroy it by the same means. Queen Anne had made a new favourite, **Miss Abigail Hill**—or **Mrs. Masham**, as she became—cousin of the duchess.

The new favourite lost no opportunity of stirring up the queen's displeasure against her old friend, "Mrs. Freeman," by saying all the evil she could of the Whigs, and praising the Tories. The queen, who was really a very strong Tory, readily listened to these attacks, the more so as she had long been tired of the bitter tongue and quarrelsome temper of the Duchess of Marlborough. From this time the fate of Marlborough was sealed, and it was not long before his enemies succeeded in bringing about his downfall.

The favour of the queen having once been won by Mrs. Masham, and lost by the duchess, the disgrace of Marlborough and of the Whigs on whom he now relied as his best supporters in carrying on the war, was only a question of time. The downfall was hastened by an event which took place in London, and which stirred up the people as well as the queen against the Whigs.

This event was the trial of a clergyman named **Dr. Sacheverell**. It was a small matter in itself, but men's minds were so excited that it led to important consequences. Sacheverell was a Tory, and a clergyman of the Established Church. He preached a sermon at St. Paul's, in which he spoke in favour of the Divine Right of Kings, and of the duty of their subjects to obey them, whatever they said or did.

The Whigs were angry with Sacheverell, for they said that such

teaching was an attack upon the Revolution, and upon the law as it had been settled by the Revolution. So angry were the Whigs that, instead of putting Sacheverell on his trial in the ordinary way, they went so far as to bring an "impeachment" against him.

As a result, Sacheverell was forbidden to preach for three years, but the attack which had been made upon him was looked upon by all the Tories as an attack upon the Church; and as the Church was a great power, and very popular in the country, a strong feeling was aroused against the Whigs. There were fierce riots in London, and some of the chief Whig ministers were driven out of office. A new Parliament was summoned, in which the Tories had a majority, and **Harley**, leader of the Tories, was made Prime Minister.

The Fall of Marlborough.

*"Marlbrook, the prince of commanders,
Has gone to the wars in Flanders;
His fame is like Alexander's,
But when will he ever come home?"*

Song: "Marlbrook."

Now that the Tories were in power, it was clear that the war which they had so long disliked would be brought to an end, and that, in order to put a stop to the war, Marlborough must first be dismissed from his office.

The queen, who was strongly on the side of Harley and the new ministers, dismissed the Duchess of Marlborough from Court, took away from her all her offices and honours, and refused to see her. Harley was made Earl of Oxford, as a sign of the queen's favour, and terms of peace were proposed to King Louis.

Marlborough now came back to England, to find that not only was the war in which he had earned so much distinction to come to an end, but that he himself was to be disgraced and deprived of his command. A whole set of charges was brought against him. It was declared that he had made a dishonest use of the money which had been voted by Parliament for the purpose of carrying on the war. He was dismissed from his command, and the **Duke of Ormonde**, who was suspected of being a Jacobite, was put at the head of the army.

Only one more thing remained to be done to bring the war to an end. The majority of the House of Lords had up to this time been

friendly to the Whigs and to Marlborough. It was necessary to get the consent of the House of Lords as well as that of the House of Commons. By the advice of the Earl of Oxford twelve new peers were created for the purpose of giving the Tories a majority in the House of Lords as well as in the House of Commons.

All was now ready for the last step to be taken, and on the 31st of March, 1713, a peace was signed at **Utrecht**, in Holland, by which the long struggle between England and France was for a time ended. The terms of the peace were not favourable to England, whose armies had been so successful throughout the war. But there can be little doubt that among the ministers who made the peace there were some who were traitors to the country which they pretended to serve. It is known that one of them—**St. John**, afterwards **Lord Bolingbroke**—was at this very time plotting for the return of the "Pretender"; and it is believed that **Harley**, Earl of Oxford, was also trying to make terms with the "Pretender," so that he might have a friend in case the Stuarts should, after all, come to the throne again.

It was not wonderful, therefore, that a ministry whose members were actually plotting with the enemy should not have been very earnest in standing out for the interests of England.

But though the **Peace of Utrecht** was not very favourable in its terms to this country, it gave us three important possessions—namely, the island of **Minorca**, in the Mediterranean, the fortress of **Gibraltar**, and the island of **Newfoundland**, all of which had been claimed by our enemies, but which were now admitted to belong to Great Britain. **Minorca** has been lost, but **Gibraltar** and **Newfoundland** are still part of the British Empire.

The Last of the Stuarts.

"Be it enacted that—The succession of the Monarchy of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, and of the Dominions thereto belonging, after her Most Sacred Majesty, and in default of issue of her Majesty, be, remain, and continue to the Most Excellent Princess Sophia, Electress and Duchess Dowager of Hanover, and the Heirs of her Body being Protestants, upon which the Crown of England is settled by an Act of Parliament made in England in the twelfth year of his late Majesty King William the Third."—5 Anne, Cap. VIII., Art. 2.

The queen's health was now fast failing, and it was clear that she had but a short time to live. She had no child to succeed her, and for a time the country was in real danger of a return of the "Pretender."

St. John, now Lord Bolingbroke, who had become Anne's most trusted minister, would certainly have called back the Stuarts on the queen's death if he had been allowed to do so.

But the greatness of the danger alarmed the Whigs, and they decided to act at once while there was time. The Duke of Argyle and the Duke of Somerset made their way to the palace of Kensington, where the queen lay dying. As members of the Privy Council, they had the right to an audience of the sovereign at any time. They now claimed their right, and were brought into the chamber of the dying queen. They told her plainly what was the danger which threatened the country, and how the Protestant cause, of which she had been during her life the great supporter, would be ruined if the Act of Succession were not obeyed, and if the Elector of Hanover were not made king upon her death.

There was one way, and one way only, they declared, by which the "Pretender" could be prevented from returning, and that was to appoint Whig ministers, who would insist upon the Act of Succession being obeyed. Anne listened to these counsels, and agreed to them. She gave the "White Staff," which was the sign of office, to the **Duke of Shrewsbury**, and made him Lord Treasurer, or head of the Government. The cause of the *Protestant Succession* had been saved. The new Whig ministers immediately sent a message to the **Elector George**, bidding him come over with all speed to England, and they made preparations to receive him and to put down any resistance which might be offered.

On the 1st of August, 1714, Queen Anne died, in the fifty-first year of



GREAT SEAL OF QUEEN ANNE (OBVERSE).

her age and the thirteenth year of her reign. With her ended the line of the Stuart Sovereigns, which began with her great-grandfather, James I.

The Union with Scotland.

"The union of lakes—the union of lands—

The Union of States none can sever—

The union of hearts—the union of hands—

And the flag of our Union for ever!"

G. P. Morris: *"The Flag of our Union."*

A great part of the pages which contain an account of Queen Anne's reign has been taken up with the story of wars on the Continent and disputes between the two great parties at home. There was, however, one important event which took place in this reign which was brought about without war, and about which the two great parties for once managed to agree. This event is such an important one, and has had such a great and lasting influence upon our history, that it must be specially mentioned.

It was in the year 1707, the sixth year of the reign of Queen Anne, that the **Act of Union** between **England** and **Scotland** was passed. It may be asked, What need was there of any Act of Union between the two countries now that they both had the same Sovereign? But we have read enough in this book to make it quite clear that, though the crown of England and the crown of Scotland were both worn by the same king or queen, there was as yet very little real union between the two countries. On the contrary, there had been perpetual disputes and constant fighting, and the English Parliament and the Scottish Parliament had not only been quite distinct bodies, but had been strongly opposed to one another.

At the beginning of Queen Anne's reign there was a very angry feeling in Scotland against the English Government. A large number of people in Scotland, moved by the persuasions of a man named **Paterson**, had joined together to send out an expedition to the **Isthmus of Darien**, the narrow strip of land which divides the Atlantic from the Pacific and which connects the continents of North and South America. Those who joined in the expedition believed that Darien would become a great and powerful colony, and that its possession would bring great wealth and strength to the kingdom of Scotland.

The English Government, however, looked upon the expedition with little favour. They knew that it was sure to rouse the anger of the Spaniards, and would probably bring about a war which would injure English trade. The Spaniards did, in fact, attack the Scottish colonists. The colonists were defeated and ruined, and the whole expedition ended in total failure and in the loss of very large sums of money.

The Scots, smarting from their loss, declared that the English Government had destroyed the expedition, and the feeling against England became very bitter. The Scottish Parliament set to work to thwart the English ministers. They refused to pass an Act of Succession, declaring that the Princess Sophia and her heirs should succeed to the throne of Scotland, and they showed themselves unfriendly in many other ways.

The English ministers prepared to punish the Scots for their unfriendliness. A Bill was actually brought into Parliament declaring that all Scotsmen should be looked upon as *foreigners* in England, that *heavy duties* should be levied upon goods crossing the Border from Scotland; and orders were given that troops should occupy the Border fortresses as if Scotland were already an open enemy. The Scots were now in their turn alarmed by the threats of their powerful neighbour, and, happily, wise counsels prevailed.

There was already a large party in both countries which desired to see a real union between England and Scotland, and steps were now taken to carry the wishes of these parties into effect. Commissioners were appointed by the Parliaments of the two countries to arrange the terms on which the Union should take place.



GREAT SEAL OF QUEEN ANNE (REVERSE).

There was a great deal of "give and take" on both sides, but on the whole the terms were very favourable to Scotland, the weaker country. So favourable were they that in **January, 1707**, the **Act of Union** passed the Scottish Parliament by a majority of 41 in a house of 179 members. It had now only to pass through the English Parliament; and so skilful were the ministers in placing the matter before the two Houses that, despite the bitter feeling between Whigs and Tories, the Act was passed with scarcely any opposition, and became from that time the law of the land.

The first article of the Act is in these words:—"That the Kingdoms of England and Scotland shall upon the First day of May, which shall be in the year One Thousand Seven Hundred and Seven, and for ever after, be united into one Kingdom in the name of Great Britain; and that the Ensigns Armorial of the said united Kingdom be such as her Majesty shall appoint, and the Crosses of George and Andrew be conjoined in such manner as her Majesty shall think fit, and used in all Flags, Banners, Standards and Ensigns, both at sea and land."¹

The following are the principal points in the Act of Union between England and Scotland:—

(1) The kingdoms of England and Scotland were to become *one kingdom*, under the title of "**Great Britain**."

(2) The **Flags** of the two countries were to be joined together. The Red Cross of **St. George** with the White Cross, or *Saltire*, of **St. Andrew**.²

(3) The **Parliaments** of England and Scotland were to be united, and the **Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain** was to sit thenceforward at **Westminster**.

(4) There were to be **forty-five Scottish members** in the House of Commons.

(5) **Sixteen of the Scottish peers** were to be elected by the votes of all the peers of Scotland, and were to take their places in the House of Lords. All peers created by the Crown in future were to be peers of the United Kingdom, and not of England or Scotland.

(6) Scotland was to take its share in bearing the debt of England, but a large sum (£398,000), was to be paid by England to discharge the debt of Scotland and to repay the losses of those who had suffered from the failure of the Darien expedition.

Such were the main points of this great Act of Parliament which has thrown open to Scotland the wealth and resources of England, and has given to its people a full share in the great naval power of the

¹ 5 Anne, chap. v., art. 1.

² See Frontispiece.

southern kingdom; an Act which, on the other hand, has given to England the energy, the courage, and the enterprise of Scotsmen, who have taken their full share in founding, strengthening, and keeping that great **British Empire** to which both Englishmen and Scotsmen are proud to belong.



CHAPTER LX.

CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF THE STUART PERIOD.

Magna Charta Re-enacted.

"And we will, that if any judgment be given from henceforth, contrary to the Points of the Charter aforesaid¹ by the Justice, or by any other of our Ministers that hold Pleas before them against the Points of the Charters, it shall be undone, and holden for nought."—25 Edward I., Chap. II.

IF we look back over the history of the Stuart Period, and ask ourselves for what it ought chiefly to be remembered, we shall probably say that it is to be remembered as a time when very great and important changes were made in the form of government of this country. It may be called, therefore, a period of great "*Constitutional changes*." If we have read the chapters which have gone before with care, we shall already be familiar with these changes, which are described in their proper places as they occurred.

But it will, perhaps, make it easier to recollect what the changes were, and to understand their true importance, if we collect them together into a chapter by themselves. At the end of the Tudor Period we found Queen Elizabeth reigning as an almost absolute sovereign, Parliament with scarcely any real power, and the queen taking the foremost part in everything which concerned the government of the country. The *Divine Right* of kings to rule was accepted as a truth which could hardly be questioned, and with the *Divine Right* of kings to govern there had also come "*the right divine of kings to govern wrong*."

When the Stuart line came to an end on the death of Queen Anne, all these things had changed. Parliament had become all-powerful.

¹ Magna Charta and the Charter of the Forest.

The Divine Right of Kings was an exploded idea in which only a few old-fashioned Jacobites believed. The sovereign still took some part in governing the country, but a much less active part than in Tudor days. It was the king's ministers who really carried on the business of the country, and who were responsible for the success or failure of the king's government.

Such were the principal changes which had been made during the 111 years of which we have been reading. As we know, there had been many struggles before the new state of things could be brought about or be made part of the law of the land. More than four hundred years before Charles I. came to the throne, **Magna Charta** had declared that taxes should not be raised without the consent of the Council of the kingdom, and that no one should be imprisoned without cause and without trial by his peers. But though the Kings of England had over and over again confirmed the promises made in **Magna Charta**, it was still found necessary, in the time of the Stuarts, to fight for those very liberties for which the Barons had contended under Stephen Langton.

It was to insure that the promise made in **Magna Charta** should not any more be broken that the "**Habeas Corpus Act**" was passed in 1679. The **Habeas Corpus Act** made it absolutely illegal to detain a prisoner in gaol without trial; and, what was more, it made every person whose duty it was to carry out the law fear the consequences which would befall him if he did not do his duty.

To this day the **Habeas Corpus Act** is acknowledged to be one of the greatest protections which a British citizen enjoys. If a person be imprisoned or detained in custody without proper trial or legal authority, the prisoner or his friends may apply to any judge, or to any one of a number of persons named in the **Habeas Corpus Act**, for a writ of **Habeas Corpus** directing the person who has charge of the prisoner to bring him up for trial. The judge dare not refuse to order the writ to be issued, for, by the Act, he may be severely punished if he does so. The person to whom the writ is sent dare not disobey it. He is bound to bring up his prisoner for trial, and knows that he, too, will be severely punished if he does not immediately obey.

The **Petition of Right** and the **Bill of Rights** have made it clear that it is contrary to the law for the king or queen to keep up a standing army in this country in time of peace, without the consent of Parliament. There can, therefore, no longer be any danger of the Crown raising an army to put down Parliament or to oppress the people.

By the same Act it has been made illegal for the Crown to raise taxes without the consent of Parliament.

Responsibility of Ministers—The “Cabinet.”

“The king can do no wrong.”

The formation of the “**Cabal**” Ministry in the time of Charles II. was an important event, because it led to the plan of governing by a **Cabinet Council**, which is now the way in which the government of our country is carried on. The Cabinet is a small committee of from twelve to eighteen members chosen from amongst the ministers of the Crown. The Cabinet conducts its councils in secret, and it decides what shall be the policy of the Government in all matters. It is the Cabinet Council which really governs the United Kingdom, and which plays a very important part in governing the whole of the British Empire.

It is to the Revolution that we owe **government by party** and the **responsibility of ministers**. We have just said that the Cabinet really governed the country, but the Cabinet is appointed from among the members of one party only, and it is from the party which has the majority in the House of Commons that the Cabinet is chosen. So it is really true, in a sense, to say that it is a party that governs the country.

Together with party government came, very naturally, *Responsibility of Ministers*. When once it became clear that the Government must change every time the majority in the House of Commons changed, the king or queen could not be expected to be made answerable for things that were done by both parties. The Whigs invented a plan which got over the difficulty. They said, “It is the duty of the king or queen to rule only with the advice of his or her ministers. As long as the sovereign follows the advice of ministers, the ministers, and not the Crown, shall be responsible for all that is done.” In order to insure this plan being faithfully followed, it was decided that a minister’s name should always be signed after that of the sovereign, so that all the world might know who was responsible for any particular act.

Here are two examples of Queen Victoria’s signature, which will show what is meant:—

“**Victoria R.**

“Given at Our Court of Kensington, the twenty-first Day of June, 1837, in the First Year of Our Reign.

“By Her Majesty’s Command.

“J. RUSSELL.”

“Victoria R.¹

‘Given at Our Court of St. James’s, the Seventeenth Day of January, 1859, in the Twenty-second Year of Our Reign.

“By Her Majesty’s Command.

“S. H. WALPOLE.”

In books about the “Constitution” of England we often find it said that “the king can do no wrong.” It is not hard, after what we have just read, to understand what this means. It means that if a wrong thing be done by order of the king or queen the whole blame must be thrown upon the minister by whose advice the thing has been done, and not upon the sovereign. The sovereign does right to act according to the advice of the minister; the minister does wrong in giving the sovereign bad advice. Hence “the king can do no wrong.”

The House of Commons and the People of England.

“So may it ever be with tyrants.”²

We have spoken in many of the preceding chapters of what was done by Parliament and by the House of Commons. We should not, however, understand the history of Stuart times rightly if we believed the House of Commons to have been the same kind of body that it is now. In the time of the Stuarts, the members of the House of Commons were elected by a very small number of the people of England, and, in many cases, members were not really elected at all, but were appointed to their seats by the king or by some great lord.

In several instances, the right to sit in Parliament for a particular place was looked upon as belonging to a particular family. There was no such thing as an election such as we see nowadays, in which nearly every man in town or country has the right to give a vote. It was only in some of the large towns that there was anything like a modern election.

It must not be supposed, however, that, despite all these differences between the House of Commons in the time of the Stuarts and the House of Commons in our own day, the majority in the House did not

¹ The signatures of Queen Victoria, countersigned by a minister, appended to the proclamations ordering and discontinuing, respectively, the special Forms of Prayer to be used on the 5th of November (Gunpowder Plot), 30th January (Execution of Charles I.), and 29th of May (Restoration of Charles II.).

² A translation of a famous Latin phrase, “*Sic semper Tyrannis.*”

often represent the real feeling of the majority of the people of England. On the other hand, there can be no doubt that on many occasions the House of Commons did not at all represent the majority of the people of England, but only the views of a very small class in the country.

As to the Revolution itself, to which we owe so much, it was begun and carried out, not by the people of England, nor, indeed, by the House of Commons, but by a few wealthy and powerful men, most of whom sat in the House of Lords. It is probable that much of what was done by the great lords who brought about the Revolution was done with selfish views. At the same time, it must be admitted that there were among these great lords, and those who supported them, many who really risked their lives and their fortunes in support of the cause which they believed to be the cause of liberty. They fought to bring about a change which they truly thought was necessary for the safety of their country, its religion, its laws, and its liberties. The United Kingdom certainly owes a great debt to the makers of the Revolution of 1688.

Nor must we forget to speak of the great Constitutional change which was made in the reign of the last of the Stuarts—namely, the “Union” between England and Scotland, and the creation of the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

One or two other points ought to be noticed in a chapter which speaks of the Constitutional lessons which are to be learnt from this period. The history of the period teaches us very plainly that *Tyranny*, under whatever name, is hateful to the English people.

They fought against King Charles and allowed him to be put to death because he acted like a tyrant. They allowed the House of Lords to be destroyed because it supported King Charles; but when the House of Commons, which then became sole master of the nation, acted like a tyrant, the country gladly saw the members of the House of Commons driven into the street by a party of musketeers. And once more, when the Army which had got rid of the Parliament, sought in its turn to ride roughshod over the people of England, the people of England, with one voice, declared that military tyranny was as bad as the tyranny of a king or the tyranny of a Parliament.

Nor did Englishmen rest contented until they had built up for their country a steady, reasonable form of government, in which every part of the nation took its share, and in which the tyranny of either king, Lords, Commons, or Army was, as they believed, made impossible.

CHAPTER LXI.

LITERATURE IN THE STUART PERIOD.

Milton, the Puritan Poet.

"Milton, thou shouldst be living at this hour;
 England hath need of thee: she is a fen
 Of stagnant waters: altar, sword, and pen,
 Fireside, the heroic wealth of hall and bower,
 Have forfeited their ancient English dower
 Of inward happiness. We are selfish men;
 Oh! raise us up, return to us again;
 And give us manners, virtue, freedom, power.
 Thy soul was like a star, and dwelt apart:
 Thou hadst a voice whose sound was like the sea;
 Pure as the naked heavens, majestic, free;
 So didst thou travel on life's common way,
 In cheerful godliness; and yet thy heart
 The lowliest duties on itself did lay."—Wordsworth.

IN the next two chapters will be found a very short account of some of the great writers who lived during the Stuart Period. It is a good thing to know something about the life of a great poet or a great prose-writer, and to understand something of the time in which he lived and of the part which he played during his lifetime. Every writer, whether he be a poet or a writer of prose, owes a great deal of his thoughts to the things which he sees going on around him and to the circumstances in which he himself lives. The very language which he uses is but the repetition in a beautiful or in an orderly form of the words which he hears around him in his daily life.

But the real way to know a great author is to read his books; and no one should pretend to know anything about **Milton**, **Dryden**, or **Addison**, or any other great authors, until he has read the works which made those authors famous. But though in a book like this we cannot read the actual poems of Milton, of Dryden, or of Addison, we can, at any rate, learn who the writers were; and when we read "*Paradise Lost*," "*Alexander's Feast*," or the "*Spectator*," we shall be

much better able to understand what we read, and to follow the meaning of many things which would otherwise puzzle us. We shall learn also why the language used by Dryden is so different from that used by Milton, and why the language of Addison is, in its turn, so different from that of Dryden.

In speaking of **John Milton**, first of all the great writers of the Stuart Period, we must not forget that even a greater poet than he actually lived for several years in the Stuart Period, and that **Shakespeare**, who died in the year 1616, not only lived thirteen years under King James's rule, but that some of his most famous plays, such as "*The Tempest*," "*Macbeth*," and "*King Lear*" appeared during the reign. But we have already spoken of Shakespeare in the story of the Tudor Period, and it was right to do so, for the thoughts and the language of Shakespeare were the thoughts and the language which he had learnt to use during the reign of the great queen to whom he paid so many compliments in his poems. Shakespeare is usually called an *Elizabethan writer*, and such he really was.

The same thing may be said of the writings of **Bacon**, who, as we know, lived through the reign of James I. and on into the reign of Charles I., and of whose best-known works "*The Advancement of Learning*" (1605) and the "*Novum Organum*" (1620) appeared during the reign of James I. His writings and his thoughts really belong to the time of Elizabeth more than to the century which followed her death, and it is for that reason that the writings of Bacon, as well as the writings of Shakespeare, have been mentioned in the story of the Tudor Period, and are not spoken of at any length in this Part, which deals with the Stuart Period.



JOHN MILTON.

(From the miniature by Samuel Cooper.)

If it were asked who was the most famous English writer of the seventeenth century, few people would have any doubt as to the answer. All would agree in giving the name of **John Milton**. Milton was born in the year 1608, in London. He was the son of a scrivener, or writer of legal documents. He was educated at St. Paul's Grammar School, and went to college at the University of Cambridge. Throughout his life he took the side of the Puritans, and he was on several occasions employed by the government of the Commonwealth to fill public offices. He was made Secretary to the Council which was appointed to carry on the government in the year 1649, the first year of the Commonwealth.

At the Restoration he fell into great misery, for he was one of the few supporters of the Commonwealth who were specially excepted by name from the pardon given by the king to those who had taken part in the war. He was imprisoned, and, to add to his misfortunes, his sight—which he had injured by overstudy when he was a young man—gradually failed him, and he became quite blind. Towards the end of his life he was released, and lived in poverty and retirement till the year of his death, in 1674. He died at the age of sixty-six, and was buried in St. Giles', Cripplegate; his monument may be seen in the Poets' Corner, Westminster Abbey.

It is not, however, as a politician that Milton is remembered, but as one of the greatest of England's poets. Milton was a *Puritan*, who lived among the Puritans, heard their speech, and understood their thoughts. It was natural, therefore, that in his poetry he should speak of religion, which formed so great a part of the life of the Puritans, and that the language he used should frequently be taken from the Bible, from which the Puritans so often quoted, and which they held so dear.

But Milton was also a *scholar* who had been educated at the University of Cambridge. He had learnt Latin and Greek, and was familiar with the writings of the great Greek and Latin authors. It is not strange, therefore, that in his poetry we should find many words and thoughts which are taken from the Bible side by side with many which are taken from the writers of Greece and Rome.

In his beautiful poem of "*Lycidas*" Milton uses a Greek name to describe the subject of the poem—his friend Edward King, who was drowned at sea. The poem is a lament over the unhappy death of his friend, and in almost every line of it we find names and thoughts and words which are taken from the old Latin poets, and which can only be properly understood by those who have read

something of the writings of Roman authors. Here are a few lines taken from the poem to show how true this is:—

“For Lycidas is dead, dead ere his prime.
 Young Lycidas, and hath not left his peer :
 Who would not sing for Lycidas ? He knew,
 Himself, to sing, and build the lofty rhyme.
 He must not float upon his watery bier
 Unwept and welter to the parching wind,
 Without the meed of some melodious tear.
 Begin, then, sisters of the sacred well
 That from beneath the seat of Jove doth spring :
 Begin, and somewhat loudly sweep the string ;
 Hence with denial vain, and coy excuse :
 So may some gentle muse
 With lucky words favour my destined urn ;
 And, as he passes, turn,
 And bid fair peace to be my sable shroud.
 For we were nursed upon the self-same hill,
 Fed the same flock, by fountain, shade, and rill.”

The “*Sisters of the sacred well*” are the “Muses”—who the ancients believed were the Goddesses of the Arts, and especially of Poetry. *Jove*, or *Jupiter*, was the great king and chief of all the gods of Greece and Rome.

Again, the beautiful lines which speak of the uncertainty of life and the suddenness of death can only be understood by those who know the ancient story of the Greeks and Romans—that the life of man is a thread spun by one of the “Fates”—and that as *Clotho*, the spinner, spins the thread her sister *Atropos* stands beside her with a pair of shears in her hand and suddenly cuts the thread, and thereby ends the life of a man. *Atropos* is “*The fury with the abhorred shears*” who “*slits the thin-spun life.*” But in this poem of “*Lycidas*,” and still more in others of his great poems, are to be found proofs that Milton was a great reader of **the Bible**. One of his most beautiful and well-known poems is the Christmas hymn which begins with the lines—

“This is the month, and this the happy morn
 Wherein the Son of Heaven’s Eternal King
 * * * * *
 Our great redemption from above did bring.”

This poem was written in 1629, when Milton was a young man of twenty-one years.

But it was in his old age, when his sight had left him, that Milton wrote his greatest poem, called “*Paradise Lost*.” In “*Paradise Lost*”

is told the story of the creation of man, of his sin in the Garden of Eden, and of his punishment. The poem describes the story as it is told in the book of Genesis in the Old Testament. It is a noble and beautiful work, full of great thoughts, and of lines which have become famous wherever the English language is known.

It is not all of equal interest, because parts of it are taken up with describing the religious quarrels of the times, quarrels which were of great interest to Milton, a strong Puritan, and a man who had taken part in the Rebellion, but which are not of such great interest now. There is, however, a great deal of "Paradise Lost" which is still of the deepest interest to all who read it. Few lines in the whole poem are better known than those which end the story, and tell how Adam and Eve, driven forth from the Garden of Eden by the angel with the fiery sword, made their way together into the world beyond.

"They, looking back, all the eastern side beheld
Of Paradise, so late their happy seat,
Waved over by that flaming brand; the gate
With dreadful faces throng'd, and fiery arms.
Some natural tears they dropt, but wiped them soon;
The world was all before them, where to choose
Their place of rest, and Providence their Guide:
They, hand in hand, with wandering steps and slow
Through Eden took their solitary way."

Among the other famous poems of Milton we may remember his "*L'Allegro*," a poem singing the praises of mirth and innocent pleasure, and "*Il Penseroso*," a poem on melancholy.

Puritan Prose-Writers.

"An' thus it was: I, writing of the way
And race of saints in this our Gospel day,
Fell suddenly into an allegory
About their journey and the way to glory."

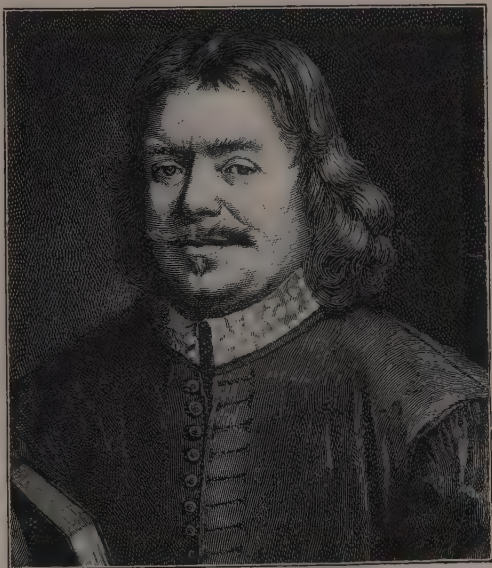
Bunyan's Apology for his Book.

JOHN BUNYAN.

Another great Puritan writer of this period was **John Bunyan**, the famous author of **The Pilgrim's Progress**. He was born in 1628, in

the reign of Charles I., and died in 1688, the last year of James II. He, like his father before him, had been a tinker, and lived in Bedfordshire. He was an honest, God-fearing man, learned in his Bible. He taught and preached repentance to his countrymen, but by his preaching he offended many persons, and was thrown into Bedford gaol. There he lay for three years, and it was while in gaol that he wrote the great allegory of "*The Pilgrim's Progress*," which has made his name so famous.

The book describes how "Christian," and "Faithful," and "Hopeful" journeyed on their way from the *City of Destruction* to the *Celestial City*; how Christian fell into the *Slough of Despond*; how he bore and at last lost the burden of his sins, which was heavy upon his back; how he was tempted in *Vanity Fair*, and was taken by *Giant Despair* at *Doubting Castle*; and how at last, after passing through *The Valley of the Shadow*, he crossed the River, and came to the *Celestial City*. The story is an alle-



JOHN BUNYAN.

gory describing the life of a Christian man, his fight with evil, his trust in God, and his passage through death to Everlasting Life.

All these things, and many more, are told in the story of "Christian," "Faithful," "Hopeful," and "Christiana," Christian's wife. They are written in most pure and beautiful English, which every English man and woman, and almost every English child, can understand. Few books have ever been written in the English language which have been more widely read and better loved than John Bunyan's "*Pilgrim's Progress*." In 1672 Bunyan was released from prison. He died sixteen years later in London, in the year 1688.

THE TRANSLATORS OF THE BIBLE.

We must not forget, in speaking of the great religious writers of this time, to mention the **Translators of the Bible**, who have given us the familiar words of the *Authorised Version*. They shared with Milton and Bunyan the power of writing clear and beautiful English, which has remained part of our English language, and which will be remembered as long as English is read or spoken.

It was in the reign of King Charles II. that the simple and beautiful prayer which comes in the service for "Those at Sea" was written. This prayer, which is read every day on every ship in the Royal Navy, was added to the Prayer-Book in the time of King Charles II. It is heard, read, and repeated by many who are not in the habit of using the Church Prayer-Book, and part of it may be quoted here, for it refers to one of the greatest Institutions of our country.

"O Eternal Lord God, who alone spreadest out the heavens, and rulest the raging of the sea; who hast compassed the waters with bounds until day and night come to an end; Be pleased to receive into thy Almighty and most gracious protection the persons of us thy servants, and the Fleet in which we serve. Preserve us from the dangers of the sea, and from the violence of the enemy; that we may be a safeguard unto our most gracious Sovereign Lady, Queen Victoria,¹ and her Dominions, and a security for such as pass on the seas upon their lawful occasions."

Other Poets and Prose-Writers of the Early Stuart Period.

Protus the King speaks to the Poet—:

*"Thou leavest much behind, while I leave nought.
Thy life stays in the poems men shall sing,
The pictures men shall study."*—*Browning*; "*Cleon*."

JOHN DRYDEN.

Among the great writers of the Stuart time must be mentioned the poet **Dryden**, who was born in the year 1631, when Charles I. was king, and who died in 1700, just before Queen Anne came to the throne. Dryden's poetry varies greatly, both in beauty and in interest. He wrote several long poems, such as "*The Hind and the*

¹ In the time of King Charles the words used were, of course, "our most gracious Sovereign Lord, King Charles."

Panther," and "*Absalom and Achitophel*," which were really political poems, and referred to things which were going on at the time. The names, which were taken from the Bible, or from Latin or Greek stories, were really used to describe people who were alive at the time. Thus, in one of the poems just mentioned, *Absalom* is only another name for the Duke of Monmouth, *Achitophel* for the Earl of Sunderland. These political poems were of greater interest when they first appeared than they are now, but there are in them passages which are very finely written, and which will always be remembered.

They also contain many short, witty phrases which have never been forgotten. Such is the well-known description of the false patriot in the lines which tell us of the man who—

"Usurped a patriot's all-atoning name,
So easy still it proves in factious times
With public zeal to cancel private crimes."

Dryden also wrote many poetical translations of the old Latin poets, but it is by some of his shorter poems that he will always be best known. Of these the most famous are the splendid poems, "*The Ode to St. Cecilia*," and "*Alexander's Feast*" or the "*Power of Music*," which begins with the lines—

"Twas at the royal feast for Persia won
By Philip's warlike son :
Aloft in awful state
The godlike hero sate
On his imperial throne ;
His valiant peers were placed around ;
Their brows with roses and with myrtles bound
(So should desert in arms be crowned).
The lovely Thais, by his side,
Sate like a blooming Eastern bride,
In flower of youth and beauty's pride.
Happy, happy, happy pair !
None but the brave,
None but the brave,
None but the brave deserve the fair."

The last lines of the poem—in which the coming of St. Cecilia, the Inventress of the "*Organ*," is described—are very familiar :—

"Thus long ago,
Ere heaving bellows learned to blow,
While organs yet were mute,
Timotheus, to his breathing flute
And sounding lyre,
Could swell the soul to rage, or kindle soft desire,

At last divine Cecilia came,
 Inventress of the vocal frame;
 The sweet enthusiast, from her sacred store
 Enlarged the former narrow bounds,
 And added length to solemn sounds,
 With Nature's Mother-wit, and arts unknown before.
 Let old Timotheus yield the prize,
 Or both divide the crown;
 He raised a mortal to the skies,
 She drew an angel down."

CLARENDON.

(B. 1608, d. 1674.)

We must turn now from a great poet to a great writer of prose—namely, the **Earl of Clarendon**—whose name has already often appeared in these pages, and whom we know as a minister and as a politician. It is, however, as a writer of the "*History of the Rebellion*" that Clarendon is most justly famous. In that great book, not only does he give us a full and interesting account of the stirring events which happened during his lifetime, and in which he himself took no small part, but he has there drawn for us a number of pictures of Englishmen whom he knew which will always remain as wonderful examples of clear and beautiful writing and of lively description.

We have already read (pages 484 and 503) the descriptions which Clarendon has given us of two men whom he knew—the one **Falkland**, a dear friend, and the other, **Blake**, a political enemy. We will here only quote one more passage taken from the same description of Lord Falkland.

This is how the historian closes his account of the life of the gallant young soldier who fell fighting at the battle of Newbury:—
"Thus fell that incomparable young man, in the four-and-thirtieth year of his age, having so much despatched the true business of life that the eldest rarely attains to that immense knowledge, and the youngest enter not into the world with more innocency. Whosoever leads such a life needs be the less anxious upon how short a warning it is taken from him."

Happy, indeed, is the man who could have so lived as to deserve such an epitaph, and happier still is he who, like Falkland, had a friend who could write that epitaph in such words as those which were chosen by Clarendon.

JOHN EVELYN AND SAMUEL PEPYS.

It would be hard to leave out of the list of the writers of this time the names of **John Evelyn** and **Samuel Pepys**. **John Evelyn** (b. 1620, d. 1706) was a gentleman of good position, whose famous house at

Wotton, in Surrey, still preserves many memorials of his active and busy life. For many years he kept a *Diary* of the events which took place, and this *Diary* is one of the best and most interesting accounts of daily life in Stuart times.

Equally interesting, and far more amusing, is that wonderful book "*The Diary of Samuel Pepys*." The son of a tailor, Samuel Pepys (b. 1632, d. 1703), succeeded by his own industry, mother-wit, and good sense in raising himself to the position of a Minister of State and in becoming Secretary to the Admiralty. His *Diary*, which was kept from day to day from 1660 to 1669, was not intended to be seen by his friends. He therefore puts into it many things which, no doubt, would otherwise not have found a place there, but this fact makes it all the more interesting and valuable to those who can read it now. Few more delightful and amusing books have ever been written than "*Pepys's Diary*," and no book gives a better picture of life in London after the Restoration than this *Diary* of sharp-witted, sharp-tongued, merry Samuel Pepys.

There is only room here to quote one short passage from "*Pepys's Diary*,"¹ but it is worth putting in because it shows us what a pleasant, cheery fellow the good Mr. Pepys was. He is going down the river to see a friend when all the world in London was in terror of the Plague. This is his account of his journey:—"By water at night late to Sir G. Cartwright's, but, there being no oars to carry me, I was fain to call a sculler that had a gentleman already in it, and he proved a man of love to music, and he and I sung together the way down with great pleasure. Above 700 died of the Plague this week."

LOVELACE.

A word must be said of some of the other writers in the early Stuart period, because, though they are not such well-known persons as Milton, Dryden, or Bunyan, their works are still known and read by many. **Richard Lovelace**, the poet of the Cavaliers (b. 1618, d. 1658), had hard treatment from the king he served, for he was sent to prison by King Charles for presenting a petition during the time of the Long Parliament. It was in his prison that he wrote the famous lines to his lady-love, which begin—

"Stone walls do not a prison make,
Nor iron bars a cage,
Minds innocent and quiet take
That for a hermitage."

¹ "*Pepys's Diary*," July 13th, 1665.

HERRICK.

Robert Herrick (b. 1591, d. 1674) was also a Royalist. He was a clergyman, and Cromwell turned him out of his vicarage, to which he only returned after the Restoration. He was the writer of many pretty and graceful verses, of which one of the best known contains the lines:—

“Gather ye rosebuds while ye may,
Old Time is still a-flying;
And this same flower that smiles to-day
To-morrow will be dying.

“The glorious lamp of heaven, the sun,
The higher he's a-getting,
The sooner will his race be run,
The nearer he's to setting.”

WALLER.

Edmund Waller (b. 1605, d. 1687) was a third Royalist writer of pretty poetry which made him famous in his own day, and which has prevented his name from being forgotten in our time.

COWLEY.

Abraham Cowley (b. 1618, d. 1667) was yet another Royalist poet, who received but small reward from Charles II. for the services he had rendered to the Royal cause. Very few of the poems of Cowley have lived to the present day.

THE DRAMATISTS WYCHERLEY AND CONGREVE.

After the Restoration we come to the names of several English writers who were very well known in their day as the writers of plays. Among them the best known were **William Wycherley** (b. 1640, d. 1715), author of “*The Plain Dealer*” and many other plays, and **William Congreve**, a later writer (b. 1670, d. 1729).

The plays written by Wycherley and Congreve are very clever, but there is much that is disagreeable and bad in them. The fact is that under the rule of the Puritans men had been forbidden any form of amusement. When the Restoration came, therefore, there came with it a sudden change—too sudden, indeed, for the country. Men were not content with reasonable amusements; they thought of nothing but self-indulgence, and they said and wrote many things which had better have been left unsaid or unwritten—as though, having gone to one extreme in the matter of strictness, they were determined to go to the other in the way of freedom from all restraint and good order.

BURNET.

We must not pass over the Revolution without mention of **Gilbert Burnet** (b. 1643, d. 1715), whose famous history of the Reformation in England was written in the reign of Charles II., and who was most active in helping to bring about the change of government which led to William III. being placed upon the throne. Besides his history of the Reformation, Burnet wrote other well-known books on religious questions. He was Bishop of Salisbury when he died.



CHAPTER LXII.

WRITERS OF THE LATER STUART PERIOD.

The Essayists.

"Writers, especially when they act in a body and in one direction, have great influence on the public mind."—Burke.

So far we have spoken only of the writers whose names were known before the Revolution, but we must not forget that Queen Anne was a Stuart no less than Charles II., and that we must not, in the history of the Stuart Period, fail to mention the famous writers of Queen Anne's time. It is right to mention them apart from those of whom we have spoken in the last chapter, for there is the greatest possible difference between the writers of the last half of the seventeenth century and those of the first half of the eighteenth century. It is in Queen Anne's time that we come to the great Essayists, the writers of short papers or *essays*. Such were **Joseph Addison** (b. 1672, d. 1719), **Sir Richard Steele** (b. 1671, d. 1729), and **Jonathan Swift** (b. 1667, d. 1745).

ADDISON.

At a time when newspapers were scarcely known, short essays, written by Addison, Steele, and Swift, were very widely read, and had a great influence upon people's minds. In "*The Tatler*," a sort of magazine which was started by **Steele**, Addison wrote a number of famous papers in which he attacked his enemies the Tories; but his most famous writings were in "*The Spectator*," which first began to

appear in 1711. It was in the "Spectator" that the famous letters of **Sir Roger de Coverley** appeared. Sir Roger was supposed to be a kind-hearted, shrewd, country gentleman, who gave his views on a variety of subjects—from politics and poetry to gardening, the fashions, and the trimming of wigs. Besides his writings in the "Tatler," "Spectator," and other magazines, Addison wrote a play called "*Cato*," and a considerable amount of poetry.

SWIFT.

A still greater name than that of Addison is **Jonathan Swift**, who was born in Dublin in the year 1667. Perhaps Swift is most famous nowadays as the writer of "*Gulliver's Travels*," a book which can still be read by anyone who is in search of an amusing story; but when Swift wrote the account of Gulliver among the Pigmies of "*Lilliput*," or among the Giants of "*Brobdingnag*," he not only meant to write a witty and amusing story, but to make his political enemies smart by the sharp things he said of them, and to ridicule many of the ideas and doings of Englishmen of his day.

The whole story of Gulliver is full of passages which were meant to raise a laugh against Swift's bitter enemies the Whigs, or to win favour for his friends the Tories. In order really to understand "*Gulliver's Travels*," it is therefore necessary to know something of the history of the time and to understand what are the thoughts Swift had in his mind when he wrote.

Among the other famous writings of Swift are "*A Tale of a Tub*" and "*The Battle of the Books*." These are, like "*Gulliver's Travels*," satirical writings in which the author attacks his enemies by means of humorous stories and witty comparisons. So great was Swift's power of saying sharp and witty things that he came to be looked upon by the Tories as one of their best champions, and to be feared by the Whigs whom he so bitterly attacked.

In 1713 Swift was made Dean of the Cathedral of St. Patrick in Dublin. Irishmen are justly proud of the great and brilliant writer, who was born and lived so long in the city of Dublin. Towards the end of his life Swift lost his reason. He died in 1745 at the age of 78.

STEELE.

There is little room here to speak of **Steele** (b. 1671, d. 1729). He was one of the famous essay-writers who joined with Addison in writing for "*The Spectator*" and "*The Guardian*." He began life in the army, but early gave up the sword for the pen. Towards the end of Queen Anne's reign he entered Parliament, but was turned

out of the House for writing what was declared to be treasonable literature. Under George I., however, he was taken back into favour. The names of Addison and Steele always go together as those of writers of clear and beautiful English prose.

DEFOE.

Daniel Defoe (b. 1661, d. 1731) was a busy politician and an active man during his lifetime, but it is not by his politics that he is remembered. It is as the writer of that wonderful story "*Robinson Crusoe*," which every English boy and girl knows, or ought to know, that Defoe will be remembered as long as the English language is read. "*Robinson Crusoe*" in his coat of skins and carrying his umbrella, "*Man Friday*," the Dog, the Goats, the Parrot, are friends of whom we never grow tired, and who seem just as real to us as any of the people who lived and died, and whose stories are told in this book. Besides "*Robinson Crusoe*" Defoe wrote several other stories, of which "*The Life of Captain Singleton*" and "*The History of Colonel Jacque*" are the best known. His "*History of the Plague of London*" is also a book of the greatest interest.

Pope—Early Newspapers

*"Why did I write? What sin to me unknown
Dipp'd me in ink—my parents', or my own?
As yet a child, nor yet a fool to fame,
I lisp'd in numbers, for the numbers came."*

Pope (writing of himself in "Prologue to Satires").

POPE.

Perhaps the greatest name among the writers of the later Stuarts is that of **Alexander Pope** (b. in London 1688, d. 1744). He began writing when he was quite a child, and throughout the whole of his life was seldom idle. He wrote little that was not worthy of a great writer. In 1715 he published the first part of his translations of the "*Iliad*" and the "*Odyssey*" of Homer, the wonderful Greek poems which describe the Siege of Troy, and the Ten Years' War between Greeks and Trojans, and the wanderings of Ulysses. Here are some lines taken from Pope's translation, which show the form of his poetry.

The lines describe how the great Trojan hero, "Hector," bids farewell to his wife and child, before going to battle:—

"Thus having spoke, th' illustrious chief of Troy
Stretch'd his fond arms to clasp the lovely boy;
The babe clung crying to his nurse's breast,
Scared at the dazzling helm and nodding crest.
With secret pleasure each fond parent smiled,
And Hector hastened to relieve his child:
The glittering terrors from his brow unbound,
And placed the gleaming helmet on the ground;
Then kiss'd the child, and lifting high in air,
Thus to the gods preferr'd a father's prayer—
'O Thou! whose glory fills th' ethereal throne,
And all ye deathless powers! protect my son!
Grant him, like me, to purchase just renown,
To guard the Trojans, to defend the crown,
Against his country's foes the war to wage,
And rise the Hector of the future age!'"—*Bk. VI.*

It cannot be said that Pope's translation of this great poem is the best and most correct that has ever been made, but the writing is so fine and spirited that we can admire it for itself, even when it does not give quite a true idea of the words and thoughts of the writer of the "Iliad." The "*Essay on Man*" is a most wonderful piece of writing. Every line of it seems to be fitted and polished with the same marvellous care. There are very many that have not read the "*Essay on Man*" who, nevertheless, are familiar with many of the lines which it contains. There is hardly any poem in the English language from which lines are more often quoted by writers, by speakers, and in ordinary conversation. It is in the "*Essay on Man*" that we find, among many other equally well-known passages, the lines which describe the nature of man:—

"Know, then, thyself, presume not God to scan;
The proper study of mankind is man.
Placed on this isthmus of a middle state,
A being darkly wise, and rudely great:
With too much knowledge for the sceptic side,
With too much weakness for the stoic's pride,
He hangs between; in doubt to act, or rest;
In doubt to deem himself a god, or beast;
In doubt his mind or body to prefer;
Born but to die, and reasoning but to err;
Alike in ignorance, his reason such,
Whether he thinks too little or too much;

Chaos of thought and passion, all confused;
 Still by himself abused, or disabused;
 Created half to rise, and half to fall;
 Great lord of all things, yet a prey to all;
 Sole judge of truth, in endless error hurled;
 The glory, jest, and riddle of the world!"

Very familiar, too, are the following lines:—

"Hope humbly, then; with trembling pinions soar;
 Wait the great teacher Death; and God adore.
 What future bliss, He gives not thee to know,
 But gives that hope to be thy blessing now.
 Hope springs eternal in the human breast:
 Man never is, but always to be blest."

The "*Dunciad*," a satire, and the "*Rape of the Lock*," are among other well-known poems by Pope.

NEWSPAPERS.

We must not leave the subject of writers and literature without mentioning the beginning of one great branch of writing which has become very important in our own day. Before the Stuart time small printed sheets giving news had from time to time been issued on special occasions; but it was not till the days of Charles I. that we find anything like a real newspaper such as we are acquainted with at the present day.

It was during the Long Parliament that the practice began of printing a regular account of what took place in the two Houses, and this account was called "*A Diurnal*"—or, as we should say, "Journal," or "daily." On the following page is a picture of a page from one of these diurnals, greatly reduced in size. The date on it is the 15th of January, 1643. "*The Diurnal*" was soon followed by many other newspapers, till in our day there is scarcely a town in the kingdom that has not got its daily or weekly newspaper.



A Perfect Diurnall

OF SOME
PASSAGES
IN
PARLIAMENT:

And from other parts of this Kingdom, from Munday the
25. of January, till Munday the 22. of January, Anno 1643.

Collected for the satisfaction of such as desire to be truly informed.

Printed for Francis Coles and Laurence Blaisdel: And are to be sold
at their Shops in the Old-Baily, and at Temple-Bar.

Munday the 15. of January.



Here was a Conference of both Houses this morning. With a true
upon occasion of a Letter from the Lord Roberts to relation of a
his Excellency the Earle of Essex. for some supplies great victory
of money for the Army, which was left to the lately obtain-
consideration of the Commons. And they accord- ed by Sir W^m
dingly taking the same into consideration, agreed Sir Tho. Farr-
in an order for the speedy raising of 10000 pound, lex against the
out of the profits of the Excise Office, or to be enemy neere
procured upon loan for the present supply of the Newbury, in
Army, untill such time as the said summe can which fight
be raised out of the Excise Office. And they appointed there were
a Committee to treat with the Commissioners for Excise this afternoon about 1600 of the
the same. enemies killed
and taken pri-
soners, great
store of Armes
14 Colours, 7
carriages, and
other such
preize.

There was also another Conference of the Houses about the Earle of Holland touching which the Lords gave the Commons to understand, that they have been often solicited by petition and otherwaies, for the restoration of the said Earle of Holland to his place in their House againe; and more particularly, received a petition on the Saturday before by the Noble Admirall the Earle of Warwick in his behalfe, with much submission acknowledging his error for his former deserting the Parliament, upon the grounds and reason faithfully related, in his
Cc
etc.

A PAGE FROM AN EARLY NEWSPAPER.

CHAPTER LXIII.

SCIENCE, ART, AND DAILY LIFE UNDER THE STUARTS.

The Royal Society—Newton and Wren—Harvey.

"See worlds on worlds compose one universe,
Observe how system into system runs,
What other planets circle other suns."

Pope: "Essay on Man."

WE have spoken of the band of famous writers who lived in the Stuart period, and we have divided them into two sets—those who lived and wrote in the earlier period. before the Revolution, and

those who lived and wrote during the last years of the period, and chiefly in the reign of Queen Anne. We have now to speak of two great Englishmen, who were among the most famous of all the men of their time, and whose work was done in the Stuart period—the one a great mathematician, the other a great architect.

Sir Isaac Newton and Sir Christopher Wren can hardly be classed with either the famous men of the first part, or of the last part, of the Stuart period. They were both born during the reign of Charles I.—Wren in 1632, and Newton in 1642. They both outlived Queen Anne, Wren dying in 1723, and Newton four years later, in 1727. They thus lived through both the Rebellion and the Revolution, and formed, as it were, a bridge between the early and the late part of the period. Before giving an account of Sir Isaac Newton and Sir Christopher Wren, we must find room for a word respecting the famous Society to which they belonged, and of which they were the greatest ornaments.



SIR ISAAC NEWTON.

This was the **Royal Society**, which was founded in the year 1645, and which received its name, and the Royal Charter which gave it its rights, from Charles II. in the year 1662. The Royal Society was formed to encourage the study of the Sciences: *Astronomy, Anatomy, Mathematics, Medicine*, and other subjects. At the present day we often see the letters **F.R.S.** placed after the name of some distinguished men. The letters mean "*Fellow of the Royal Society*," and serve to show us that this famous Society, founded two hundred and fifty years ago, still lives and flourishes, and carries on the work which it was founded to undertake.

NEWTON.

By far the most distinguished member of the Royal Society in its early years, and perhaps the most distinguished man that has ever belonged to it, is **Sir Isaac Newton**. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, and showed early in his life wonderful powers as a mathematician and a great thinker. It is, of course, quite impossible to explain here the great discoveries which Newton made, and which are described in his famous book, the "*Principia*." His greatest discovery was that of the laws of gravity. A story is told that as he was lying under an apple-tree he saw an apple fall to the ground, and that he asked himself why it was that the apple fell to the ground. It seems to us a very simple thing that an apple should fall to the ground. Everything in the world follows the same law as the apple, and will fall to the ground unless it be supported.

But the very fact that the rule or law by which a body falls down to the ground, instead of falling upwards, or remaining stationary, is without an exception, makes it the more important that we should know what this law and rule really is. It was this "*force of gravity*," which tends to make everything fall towards the centre of the earth, that Newton studied; and he was the first person to make it clear that the rule or law of gravity applied not only to things upon our own earth, but to everything in the whole of the great universe of which we have any knowledge. He showed that the same force which makes the apple fall to the ground kept our earth in its proper place in its pathway round the sun, and that all the planets, and even the most distant stars, which we can scarcely see with the aid of a powerful telescope, obey the same great law of gravity.

Not only did Newton show that the law applied to all substances throughout the universe, but he explained how the force of gravity makes itself felt, and laid down rules which enable us to calculate what will be the effect of this force in any case, whether upon the surface of the earth or on the great world of stars outside our globe.

Since Newton's discovery, much has been learnt in addition to what was written in the "*Principia*"; but all that Newton discovered has been proved to be true by those who came after him, and his name will always be remembered as that of one of the greatest discoverers and thinkers the world has ever known.

Unlike some other great men, Newton was held in high honour in his own day. He was made Master of the Mint, President of the Royal Society, and received the honour of being made a member of the famous "*Academy of Sciences*," in Paris, where his work was as

well known as it was in England. Newton died in 1727, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

WREN.

Sir Christopher Wren was a Westminster scholar, and went to college at the University of Oxford. Like Sir Isaac Newton, he was



ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL, DESIGNED BY SIR CHRISTOPHER WREN.

(Photo by Frith & Co., Reigate.)

famous and honoured in his own day, and, like Newton, he has left behind him work which makes his name as well known in our own day as it was in that of Queen Anne. It was the Fire of London which gave Wren his great opportunity of showing his skill as an architect. We have read how in that terrible fire no less than eighty-nine of the churches of London were burnt to the ground. Wren was intrusted with the task of planning a number of the new churches, which were to be built to take the places of those that had been destroyed.

Of these new churches the most famous is the stately cathedral of **St. Paul**, which still raises its lofty and well-shaped dome far above

the busy streets of the city of London. Inside the cathedral may be seen, over one of the doors, a Latin inscription. In the inscription we are told how Sir Christopher Wren built the great cathedral, and how he lies buried within its walls, and at the end of it are the Latin words, "*Si monumentum requiris, circumspice.*" This is what the words mean: "**If you ask where is his monument, look around you.**" And, indeed, no nobler monument could have been placed over the grave of the great architect than the noble church which he himself had built.

Among the other famous buildings which were planned by Wren, and which are still to be seen, are **The Custom House** (in London), **The Monument**, and **Greenwich** and **Chelsea Hospitals**. Wren died in 1723, in the reign of George I.

WILLIAM HARVEY.

One other name must be mentioned before we leave the world of science, and that is the name of **William Harvey** (b. 1578, d. 1657). Harvey, a physician, educated at the University of Cambridge, has earned fame by a discovery which, like Newton's discovery of the law of gravity, has become the foundation of a vast amount of knowledge which has grown out of it.

If we lay our finger upon our wrist we shall feel the quick, steady beat of the blood in the pulse as it passes from the heart, down the *arteries* of the arm, to the very ends of the fingers, to return thence by way of the network of *veins*, which bring it back again at last to the heart. It was Harvey who first discovered and explained to the world the way in which the blood circulates in the human body. It was he who showed how it passed out of the heart with each beat, flows through the arteries, and returns again through the veins, is refreshed and purified before it starts again upon its journey, and how this movement or *circulation* goes on without ceasing as long as life remains in the human body. Few discoveries have made a greater difference to the arts of medicine and surgery than Harvey's great **discovery of the circulation of the blood**.



Population—Prices—Wages—Art.

*"How small of all that human hearts endure,
That part which laws or kings can cause or cure."*

Johnson : Lines added to Goldsmith's " Traveller."

So much space has been given up to an account of the political events which took place during the Stuart Period, and to the history of the long struggle between king and Parliament, that little room has been left to tell of the life of the country outside Parliament and far from political strife and turmoil. It must not be forgotten, however, that the daily life of the people, their happiness or distress, their progress and their prosperity, are really the most important things to be noted in a nation's history, and no one ought to think that he has anything like full knowledge of any part of history unless he has made a study of these things.

It must not be supposed for a moment that even during the height of the Civil War the whole thoughts of the people were given up to politics and fighting. On the contrary, there were tens of thousands of people who were only anxious to be let alone and to go about their business quietly and in their own way. Throughout the whole Stuart Period, the country, despite bad government and despite perpetual war, was growing richer and more prosperous. The population of England was nothing to what it now is, the total being not much more than five millions, or about equal to the population of London at the present day.

London was then, as now, by far the largest city. Then came **Norwich** and **Bristol**. The great cities of Manchester, Liverpool, and Leeds were still comparatively small places. Trade, however, was rapidly increasing, especially as English merchants and sailors began to compete with the Dutch and Spaniards for the trade of the East and West Indies. Roads were bad, but attempts were made to improve them, and the use of coaches became much more general than it had hitherto been. In towns the sedan chair, carried by two men, was generally used for such purposes as a cab or carriage now performs for us.

Then, as now, while many grew rich many remained poor, and the number of paupers was increased by the unwise laws which

prevented a pauper from leaving his own parish, though by doing so he might have gone to a place where he might have obtained work. The price of wheat was as high as 70s. a quarter. It is now sometimes as low as 20s. a quarter, and in the days of the Stuarts a shilling was worth more than it is now, so that 70s. then was even a higher price than 70s. would be at the present day. Wages were low, being generally about 6d. a day for those who worked in the country, but skilled artisans, such as carpenters and bricklayers, could earn as much as 2s. 6d. a day.

At the present day wages are of course higher in all trades. There is, however, one exception which is worth while noting, and which is rather a strange one. The private soldiers who served under William III. received one shilling a day, which is exactly the sum a private soldier is supposed to receive every day in the time of Queen Victoria.

The period of the Stuarts was, as a whole, favourable to Art. Both Charles I. and Charles II. did much to encourage painting. **Sir Peter Lely** and **Sir Godfrey Kneller** were both of them foreigners who found a welcome for themselves and their art in England, and the great Flemish painter, **Van Dyck**, painted many of his most famous pictures in England. Charles I. himself made a very fine collection of paintings, but unfortunately the collection was broken up and partly destroyed by the Puritans during the Commonwealth.



PART SIX.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF
HANOVER TO THE PRESENT TIME.

1714—1897.

NOTE.

The sixth and last part of the present work continues the story of English history from the date of the death of Queen Anne and the accession of the House of Hanover, down to the present day. The difficulty of condensation, which has already made itself apparent in earlier portions of the book, is even more seriously felt in dealing with the full records and crowded events of modern times.

To give the main facts, to explain the great changes, and to indicate the characteristic tendencies of the time is all that can be attempted. The building up of the Empire in war and peace, the winning of India and of America, the loss of the United States, the fidelity of Canada, the great struggle between Britain and France, the long peace after Waterloo, and the political contests of the last sixty years—these are the great events which have to be recorded.

The political and social changes which mark the present century, "Steps on the Path of Freedom," claim and receive mention. The full tables of facts, events, and dates supply to some extent the large but necessary omissions in the text.

CHAPTER LXIV.

GEORGE I.

1714—1727.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF GEORGE I.

George I., King of Great Britain and Ireland, Elector of Hanover, son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, and Sophia, granddaughter of James I., b. 1660, became king 1714, d. 1727.

Sophia Dorothea (of Zell), wife and cousin of George I., m. 1682, divorced 1694, d. 1726.

George, son of George I. and Sophia, b. 1683, afterwards king.

Sophia Dorothea, daughter of George I. and Sophia, afterward's wife of Frederick William of Prussia b. 1687.

James Edward Stuart, the "Old Pretender," son of James II. and Mary of Modena.

Charles Edward Stuart, the "Young Pretender," son of James Edward, b. 1720.

Louis XIV., King of France, d. 1715.

Louis XV., King of France.

Charles VI., Emperor.

Frederick William I., King of Prussia.

Philip V., King of Spain.

Peter the Great, Czar of Russia, d. 1725.

Catherine I., Empress of Russia.

Charles XII., King of Sweden, d. 1718.

John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, d. 1722.

Principal Ministers of George I.:—

Sir Robert Walpole.

James, Earl of Stanhope, d. 1721.

Charles Montagu, Earl of Halifax, d. 1715.

Charles Spencer, Earl of Sunderland, d. 1722.

Viscount Charles Townshend.

Thomas Pelham, Duke of Newcastle.

John Carteret, Earl of Granville.

Great Writers:—

Daniel Defoe, b. 1661.

Matthew Prior, b. 1664, d. 1721.

Jonathan Swift, b. 1667.

William Congreve, b. 1670.

Richard Steele, b. 1671.

Joseph Addison, b. 1672, d. 1719.

Henry St. John, Lord Bolingbroke, b. 1678.

Alexander Pope, b. 1688.

Bishop Burnet, b. 1643, d. 1715.

Sir Christopher Wren, b. 1632, d. 1723.

Sir Isaac Newton, b. 1642, d. 1727.

Great Painters:—

Sir Godfrey Kneller (German), d. 1723.

William Hogarth (English), b. 1697.

Great Musicians:—

J. Sebastian Bach (German).

George Handel (German).

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF GEORGE I.

1714. George I. becomes king.

1715. Riot Act passed, and Habeas Corpus Act suspended.

Battle of Sheriffmuir.

1716. The Pretender lands at Peterhead,

near Aberdeen.

The Septennial Act passed.

1718. Sir George Byng defeats the Spaniards at Passaro.

1720. The South Sea Company Act passed.

The "South Sea Bubble" bursts.

1722. Death of the Duke of Marlborough.

1727. Gibraltar besieged by Spaniards.

Death of George I.

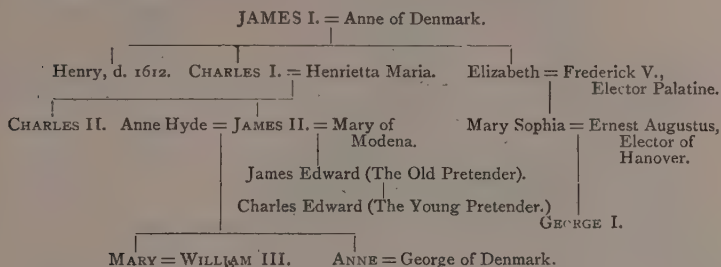
The German King.

*"When George in pudding-time came o'er,
And moderate men look'd big, sir,
My principles I changed once more,
And so became a Whig, sir;
And thus preferment I procur'd
From our new faith's-defender,
And almost every day abjur'd
The Pope and the Pretender."*—("The Vicar of Bray.")

At the end of Chapter XLIX. we read how **Queen Anne**, the last of the **Stuart** sovereigns of England, died in her palace at Kensington in the year 1714. The strife between the two great parties in the country was fought out round her death-bed. The Whig Ministers, knowing the danger which they ran if a Roman Catholic king were placed upon the throne, had prevailed upon Anne in her last moments to dismiss her Tory Ministers, and to declare **George**,⁽¹⁵⁾ Protestant Elector of Hanover, her successor.

Messages were sent to the new king bidding him come and take possession of his kingdom, and every preparation was made to secure his safe arrival by men who knew that their own power, and possibly their own property and lives, depended upon the event.

It will be well to recall here one or two facts which we have already learnt about the new king, and about his claim to the throne. Here is a table which shows who the **Elector George of Hanover** was, and how he came to be the successor to the throne of England :—



From the table it will easily be seen that, according to the law and custom of England, by which the eldest son and all the descendants of the eldest son of the sovereign are entitled to succeed to the throne before the daughter of the sovereign or any of the daughter's descendants, George was *not the true heir to the Crown*. He was descended, it is true, from **Elizabeth**,⁽⁸¹⁾ daughter of James I.; but James I. had, as we know, two sons as well as a daughter. One of these sons was Charles I., and a descendant of Charles I. was still alive—namely, his grandson, **James Francis Edward Stuart**,⁽⁹¹⁾ son of James II.

Undoubtedly, if the old law and custom of England had been left unchanged, **James Stuart**, and not the **Elector George**, would have become king on the death of Queen Anne. But, as a matter of fact, a great change had been made in the law of England; for by the **Act of Succession**, passed in the year 1701, it had been declared and enacted as part of the law of the land that the succession to the crown should not pass to the Stuarts, but should go to the Protestant family of the **Princess Sophia**,⁽⁸⁹⁾ Electress Dowager of Hanover, and *her heirs, being Protestants*.¹

The Elector George was the heir of the Princess Sophia, who died in 1714; and, therefore, by the Act of Parliament, **George**, and not **James**, became king.

¹ For the clause in the Act of Settlement, 5 Anne cap. 8, Article 2, see p. 556.

There were, however, many people in the country who believed that Parliament had no right to alter the order of succession to the crown, and who, therefore, supported the claim of James; and there was a large party still remaining, known as "*Jacobites*," who wished to see the Stuarts put back on the throne. And thus it came about that the new king found himself beset at the very beginning of his reign by serious dangers.

Why King George Found a Welcome.

"And the frogs agreed that after all it were better to be ruled over by King Log than King Stork."—*Æsop's Fables*.

At first it seemed almost impossible that George should be able to hold his own, for the forces against him were very powerful, and it seemed as if he were likely to get but small support among his new subjects. It was some time before the king could be persuaded to leave Hanover. At last he began his journey. A fleet was sent to protect his passage across the sea, and he arrived safely in England. By the Whig Ministers, who had secured the crown for him, he was welcomed; but there was little enthusiasm for the new king among the people generally. This was not strange. George was an elderly man, plain to ugliness, slow and unattractive in manner, and quite unacquainted with England or with English manners. He spoke German and not a word of English; and the strange scene was witnessed of a royal speech being read in the House of Lords by the Lord Chancellor because the King of England could not speak a single word which his subjects could understand.

When we remember that the powerful *Tory Party* was still smarting from its defeat, and angry at being turned out of office; when we remember that many of its members were open or secret friends of the Stuarts, and that James Stuart was reported to be young, handsome, and energetic, and in all ways a contrast to the new German king—it is not wonderful that the friends of the "Protestant Succession" were greatly alarmed for the safety of their cause.

Happily, however, for England, there were forces equally strong on the other side which enabled the friends of the "Protestant Succession" to hold their own, to triumph over their enemies, and at last to win to their side men of all parties, creeds, and opinions in the United Kingdom. It was true that the new king was neither attractive

nor popular; but if the people of England liked a *Hanoverian* king little, they liked a *Stuart* king still less. The memory of the reigns of Charles II. and James II. was too fresh to have passed from men's minds. Moreover, England was by this time almost wholly a Protestant country, and the Protestant cause had little to hope from a king whose best friends were to be found in the ranks of the Roman Catholics, and who always sought to bring England to his own way of thinking by the arms of foreign soldiers in the service of the great Roman Catholic monarch of France.

Neither must it be forgotten that during the reign of Queen Anne trade had been prospering, wealth had been growing, and the business of the country had largely increased.

All those who have to carry on business know that the best chance of success is when the country is peaceable and undisturbed; and it is when men are confident that the Government will continue, and the laws be fairly and regularly carried out, that they are ready to risk large sums of money in commerce or manufactures. There was not a single business man in England in 1715 who did not in his heart believe that the return of the Stuarts would mean disaster to his trade; and this fear, more perhaps than any other reason, led large numbers of well-to-do people to support the German king and his Whig Ministers, rather than the Stuart Pretender with his French and Scottish supporters.



GEORGE I.

The Beginning of Troubles.

"Where Law ends, Tyranny begins."

—William Pitt (Lord Chatham).

It was the *Whigs* who had brought King George over, and the *Whigs* now took good care that the king should reward them for their services. **Townshend, Lord Halifax, General Stanhope, Lord Cowper, Sir Robert Walpole**, and others—all of them *Whigs*—were appointed to the great offices of State. The **Duke of Marlborough** hurried back to England, hoping that he, too, would receive the honour to which he thought himself entitled. But a man who had betrayed so many masters was not one to be trusted, and the victor of *Blenheim* and of *Ramillies* found himself without power, and no longer either feared or respected.

For a short time there was peace at home and abroad. It seemed as if the enemies of the Government had been taken by surprise, and could offer no real resistance to the new king or to his Ministers. There were soon signs, however, that the peace was not to last long. Riots broke out in many parts of England, which grew more violent when the Government decided to impeach the members of the old *Tory* Ministry. So serious did the disturbances become that it was thought necessary to pass a special Act of Parliament for the purpose of putting them down. This Act, which is still part of the law of the land, is known as the "**Riot Act**" (1715).

The *Riot Act* declares that if "twelve or more persons are unlawfully assembled to the disturbance of the peace, and any Justice of the Peace or Sheriff shall think proper to command them by proclamation to disperse, if they contemn his orders, and continue together for one hour afterwards, such contempt shall be *felony*." This means that a magistrate may order a riotous crowd to disperse; and that if, after he has read the proclamation contained in the Act of Parliament, the persons who form the crowd remain assembled for an hour after the reading of the proclamation, they are all and each of them liable to be punished for doing so. It is often supposed that persons who take part in a riot cannot be punished until an hour has passed after the reading of the *Riot Act*; but this is quite a mistake. Any man who acts unlawfully is liable to be punished for doing so, *whether the Riot Act has been read or not*. What the Act says is, that if people have

received proper notice to disperse, and refuse to obey the law for the space of an hour, their remaining together assembled after that time is in itself an illegal act, for which they can be punished.

It has sometimes happened that people who have joined the crowd, but who are not rioters, have been shot or injured by the officers of the law who have been ordered to disperse the rioters. Such people have no right to complain; for if out of curiosity or any other reason they choose to remain, when they have had full notice that it is illegal to do so, they have no one but themselves to thank.

The impeachment of the Tory Ministers was begun in the year 1715. The charge against them was that they had committed High Treason by making terms too easily with France during the last reign, and by giving away the advantages which England had justly won by her great victories. The impeachment, however, came to little, and most of the persons



LOUIS XIV. OF FRANCE.

against whom the charges were brought were in the end allowed to go unpunished. But two of the most active of the Tory leaders, who doubtless feared that in their cases at least the charges of High Treason might be proved true, fled to the Continent, and openly joined the cause of **James Stuart**, or, as he was usually called in England, "**The Pretender**." The two men who thus fled were **Bolingbroke** and the **Duke of Ormond**, and both showed great activity in plotting against the Whig Government and in stirring up foreign Powers to help the Pretender.

It is possible that their efforts might have been successful, had it not been for an important event which took place at this time. This was the death of the old French king, **Louis XIV.**, the life-long enemy of England. He died in 1715, in the seventy-seventh year of his age and the seventy-third year of his reign; and although he had been for many years feeble in mind and body, he was to the very last a dangerous enemy of our country.

The friends of the Pretender had always looked to the King of France as their chief and most certain support, but **Louis XV.**, or rather his uncle, **Philip, Duke of Orleans**, who had now been appointed *Regent* to the young king,¹ was by no means so bitter an enemy of England as his predecessor had been, and the Ministers of the new king went so far as to believe that the advantage of France might actually be found in an alliance with Britain and its Whig Government.

“The ‘Fifteen”—Success.

*“God bless the King—I mean the Faith’s defender!
 God bless (no harm in blessing!) the Pretender!
 But who pretender is, or who is king—
 God bless us all! that’s quite another thing.”—John Byrom.*

Thus it came about, that when at last the Pretender and his friends made up their minds to risk an invasion of the United Kingdom, in the hope of uniting their friends and recovering the crown of England for the Stuarts, they found but scanty support from the French Court. At last, despairing of any effective aid from the Regent, James set sail, and, having by a lucky chance escaped the English vessels, succeeded in reaching Scotland with a single ship.

It was to **Scotland** that James naturally looked for most active support. The very name he bore was one which was sure to earn for him the friendship of the Highlanders, who remembered that the Stuart Kings of England were also the chiefs of the famous family of the **Stuarts**. Moreover, the rivalry and hatred which always existed between the various Highland clans had already enlisted a large body of the Highlanders among the enemies of the Whig Government. The most powerful of the Scottish Whigs was the **Duke of Argyle**, the head of the great **clan Campbell**.

¹ Louis XV. was only five years old when he became king.

The most powerful of all the clans, the Clan Campbell was hated as well as feared by those who had suffered at its hands, or who were jealous of its success—in other words, by the greater number of the clans of the North. That the Duke of Argyle, "**The McCallum More**," as he was called, had taken sides with the Hanoverian king was in itself almost enough to range the Highlanders on the other side; and when to this inducement was added the chance of following a Stuart into England, there was scarcely a Scotsman north of the Tay who could not be reckoned upon as a friend of the cause.

In August, 1715, the standard of the Pretender was raised at Braemar, in Aberdeenshire; it was soon joined by many of the Highland chiefs and gentlemen, and in September a small army under the **Earl of Mar** began its march southward. Difficulties, however, soon began to appear. The High-



JAMES EDWARD STUART, THE "OLD PRETENDER."

landers were brave and hardy, but were too much divided into different clans to allow of their forming a really united army, nor were they accustomed to make war in a regular fashion. Alike after victory or defeat, they preferred to hasten off to their own homes, in the one case to secure and enjoy their plunder, in the other to protect their homesteads from the enemy. Provisions and ammunition were also wanting; and what was still more important, it soon became evident that James Stuart, so far from being the brilliant and active prince of whom his friends had drawn so favourable a picture,

was a man of little judgment, of no skill in war, unable to add to the number of his friends, and scarcely able to retain the friendship of those who were already devoted to his cause.

For a few days it seemed as if the Highlanders might win some success. They passed Edinburgh and reached the Border at **Jedburgh**. It was determined to push on into England, in the hope that the Jacobites in the northern counties would rise on behalf of the Pretender. But a double disappointment here met the invaders. Many of the Highlanders refused to cross the Border into England, and, leaving the army, returned to their homes. The remainder, with some troops under the command of Lord Kenmure, of Mackintosh, and of Mr. Forster, a Northumbrian gentleman, marched south. The leaders soon found that their little army of 2,000 men was all that they could rely upon for the invasion of England and the overthrow of the House of Hanover.

The English Jacobites, with a very few exceptions, held back, fearing to join an enterprise which seemed ill-managed and badly led.

“The ‘Fifteen’—Failure.

“I am at this moment come from the conclusion of the greatest and most melancholy scene I ever yet saw! You will easily guess it was the trial of the rebel lords.”—From Horace Walpole's description of the trial of Lords Kilmarnock, Cromarty, and Balmerino before the House of Lords, after “The ‘Fifteen.’”

Meanwhile in the month of August, 1715, the Highland army entered Lancashire. On the London and North Western Railway, between Crewe and Lancaster, lies the large manufacturing town of **Preston**. On the south side of the town the ground slopes rapidly down the banks of the river Ribble, and a public garden and park now make the approach by the railway an exceedingly pretty one. Into the town of Preston the Highlanders marched, but this was the furthest point they were destined to reach. General Carpenter and General Wills at last came up with the rebels, and attacked the town with great vigour. The action was short, but decisive. The rebels were defeated and compelled to surrender.

As far as England was concerned, the danger was over, but in Scotland the struggle between the Duke of Argyle on the one side and the Earl of Mar on the other continued for a time. A battle was fought on the 13th of November at **Sheriffmuir**, in Perthshire. No decisive

advantage remained with either party. One wing of the royal army defeated the troops opposed to it, while the other wing was driven back at the same time. Both sides claimed a victory which neither side had really won. An old rhyme recalls the history of this fight :

"Some say that we wan, and some say that they wan,
And some say that nane wan at a', man;
But ae thing I'm sure,
That at Sheriffmuir
A battle there was which I saw, man."

It was at this point of the campaign, when one party of his supporters had been defeated and destroyed in England and another party had failed to obtain any real power in Scotland, that **The Pretender** himself arrived in Scotland to champion his own cause. He landed at Peterhead on the 6th of January, 1716, and at once issued proclamations in his own name as King James VIII. But Fortune had already declared against him, and he was not the man to win back her favours. His little force melted away; the Highlanders, pursued by Argyle, retreated to the North. At last, on the 5th of February, scarcely a month after his landing, James took ship again and sought refuge in France.

He escaped with his life; his followers were not so fortunate. The principal leaders, both in England and Scotland, were taken prisoners. Lords **Derwentwater** and **Kenmure** were executed, but the Government wisely did not act with great severity, for it was plain that the country was not anxious for the restoration of the Stuarts, and nothing was to be gained by making unnecessary enemies.

Thus ended the rebellion known in our history as "**The 'Fifteen.**" For a time it became really dangerous in Scotland, but in England the sight of the half-savage Highlanders did more to strengthen the royal cause than even the success of the royal troops. The English were half-angry and half-afraid when they saw these strange clansmen brought into the heart of their country, and they readily gave their support to a Government which was ready and able to protect them from such a danger. The time had not yet come when the "bonnets" and "tartans" of the Highland soldiers were to be welcome in every town and village in England, and when the valour of the clansmen was to be shown in many a hard-fought field among the bravest defenders of that United Kingdom which in 1715 they were doing their best to break up. In 1715 the claymore and tartan went down at the rout of **Preston**. In 1815, only a hundred years later, the claymore and tartan held their own during all the long day, in the thick of the battle, on the victorious field of **Waterloo**.

But the "The 'Fifteen" had important consequences in England. As the Riot Act was due to the special disturbances which took place at this time, so was another great Act of Parliament in like manner the outcome of the difficulties in which the Whig Parliament of George I. found itself. In an earlier chapter we read how in the reign of William III. an Act of Parliament called the "**Triennial Act**" was passed, by which it was enacted that Parliament should not last *more than three years*.

The time had come when, under this Act, the Whig Parliament, which had done so much to secure the position of the king, would naturally have come to an end and been dissolved, but the Government, and many persons who were not members of the Government, were alarmed at the idea of a new Parliament being called together at this time. The country was scarcely yet free from civil war. Plots and intrigues were known to exist on every side, and though the Pretender's expedition had failed, chiefly owing to the want of support from France, there was no knowing how soon a second and much stronger expedition might not set sail with French or Spanish aid. It seemed necessary that, at any cost, Parliament should remain unaltered for the time.

A Bill was, therefore, brought in and passed into law, by which it was enacted that the length of a Parliament should cease to be *three years*, and, unless it were earlier dissolved, should be extended to *seven years*. This Act, known as the **Septennial Act** (1716), has lasted down to our own time, and is still the law of the land. It was said by many at the time that Parliament had no right and no power to pass such an Act, or, at any rate, to make such an Act apply to itself. It was pointed out with great truth that if Parliament could prolong its own life to *seven years*, there was no reason why it should not prolong it to *seventy*. But in times of difficulty it is sometimes necessary to do things which would not be done, and ought not to be done, in times of quiet. The great majority of the people of England no doubt thought that Parliament had a real reason for passing the Septennial Act, for they believed that it was necessary for the safety of the country.

It has sometimes been suggested that it would be wise to *repeal* the Act and go back to triennial Parliaments, or even to have a Parliament every year. There will always be a difference of opinion as to whether such changes would be advantageous, but there can be little doubt that it would be very inconvenient to have a General Election, and perhaps a change in the Government of the country, every twelve months.

England and the Quarrels of Europe.

*"War's a game which, were their subjects wise,
Kings would not play at."*

Couper: "The Task."

From the year 1716, in which the first Stuart rebellion, under the Pretender James, was put down, to the end of King George's reign, in 1727, was a period of *eleven years*; and during the whole of those eleven years England was either engaged in war or was taking part in some dispute between the different Powers of Europe which might at any time lead to war.

There is not space to tell the whole story of the intrigues and alliances, of the failures and successes, the account of which rightly occupies many pages of a full and complete history of this time. But there are some points with regard to the foreign policy of England which must be mentioned, because they have a great deal to do with the condition of the British Empire at the present day. It must not be forgotten that though **George I.** was *King of Great Britain and Ireland*, he was also *Elector*, or Prince, of Hanover, a German State which bordered on the kingdom of Prussia, and which was deeply interested in all the quarrels between the various German States.

At that time **Germany** was broken up into scores of States, large and small—from the great State of **Austria**, the powerful Electorate of **Bavaria**, and **Prussia**, now becoming a strong Power, down to little Principalities and even small independent towns with only a few thousand inhabitants. At the present time, as we know, the German-speaking people of Central Europe are divided into two unequal parts, the smaller number being subjects of the **Emperor of Austria**, and by far the larger number belonging to the united **German Empire**, which was first established in 1871, after the great war between Germany and France.

But at the time of which we are speaking—namely, the beginning of the eighteenth century—there was no union among the German States, and, in consequence, there were endless rivalries between them, each State striving to get the better of its neighbour and ready to accept any help which was available, often without much thought of the consequences. But while Germany was thus divided there lay to the westward, across the Rhine, the powerful and united kingdom of

France; while in the south-west corner of Europe was the **Spanish** monarchy, weaker far than it had been in the days of the Armada, but still a great Power which had to be reckoned with.

Among all these Powers, great and small, there were endless opportunities for alliances and counter-alliances; and for many years the foreign history of our country is concerned with the story of such alliances, in which the parties shift and change from one side to the other like the fragments of glass in a kaleidoscope.

One year **England** and **France** are allies; another year **England** has taken sides with one of the **German Powers**, and **France** has become an enemy. In 1717 we find **England**, **France**, and **Holland** united together to form a "*Triple Alliance*" against the rest of Europe. A year later (August, 1718) the "*Triple Alliance*" has been changed into the "*Quadruple Alliance*," or the alliance of four Powers—**England**, **France**, **Holland**, and **Austria**—against **Spain**, an alliance marked by the naval victory of **Admiral Sir George Byng**¹ over the Spanish fleet off **Cape Passaro**, in Sicily.

From time to time every single Power in Europe, including **Denmark**, **Sweden**, **Norway**, and **Holland**, was drawn into the conflict. As we have already seen, England was never able—or, at any rate, never willing—to stand outside for long. There were three reasons which compelled British Ministers to take part in European disputes. In the first place, George I. was a German sovereign, and never forgot, and never allowed his Ministers to forget, that the interests of Hanover occupied a greater place in his mind than those of the United Kingdom.

In the second place, the Stuart claimants to the crown of England still looked for their principal support to the two great Roman Catholic Powers of Europe, namely, **France** and **Spain**, and especially to the former. It is probable that after the death of Louis XIV. neither the French king nor the French people took much interest in the Stuart cause, but it was always useful to the Government of France to have some threat which it could hold out against England, and the friends of the Stuarts lost no opportunity of making difficulties between France and the Whig Government of England they so greatly detested.

And, lastly, there was one cause which, more than either of the others we have mentioned, tended to bring England more and more into the quarrels of European countries. Ever since the accession of the new king, wealth had been growing rapidly in England, and with wealth had come the growth of enterprise and the starting of many new commercial ventures. Year by year, as the century passed,

¹ Afterwards Viscount Torrington. The battle of Passaro was fought on October 1, 1718.

English ships had been going further and further afield in search of trade; and as the power of Spain and Holland diminished, the position of England as a great trading and shipping country grew stronger. But the further our ships went, the more certain were they to come in conflict with other European Powers which already claimed possession, or sought to take possession, of the unoccupied countries of the world.

Spain still claimed enormous territories both in South and North America; in the West Indies, where **Havannah**, "*The Pearl of the Antilles*," gave her the command of the Gulf of Mexico; and in the East Indies, where the trade of the **Philippines** was forbidden to any but Spanish ships. In **India**, France was still a greater Power than England, while in extent of territory at least the same might be said of France in the great continent of **North America**. **Portugal** and **Holland** both had great colonial possessions, and the **Cape of Good Hope**, perhaps the most important position in the whole world, was in the hands of the Dutch.

There was not one of the great Powers of Europe which was not ready to fight in order to keep its colonial possessions; but to none of them, save to England, was the possession of new colonies and new outlets of commerce the most important thing to be gained by war. The Continental Powers were always concerned first of all to strengthen or enlarge their own borders on the continent of Europe.

Prussia and Austria, France and Spain, Sweden and Russia, were perpetually struggling to deprive each other of territory. It was the good fortune of England that she could make no claim to an extension of her boundaries at home. The frontier of the United Kingdom was clearly marked by the waters of the ocean; and thus it came about that during the many conflicts which disturbed Europe the European Powers were nearly always ready to give up to England some distant colony or territory in exchange for the right to keep or to take some part of the soil of Europe. And when at last the long struggle was over, it was seen that while the boundaries of European States had been changed, and while some European Powers had grown strong at the expense of others who had grown weak, it was Britain that had really added to her territory, and had acquired an empire outside Europe, an empire to which we are now the heirs, and which it is our duty to keep with the same courage and energy as were shown by those who won it.

About the Country's Debts.

*"English Funds, Consols $2\frac{3}{4}$ per cents., 118."*¹

Even in a short account of the reign of George I. such as that to be found in this book, it would not be right to leave out all mention of what is known as the story of the "**South Sea Bubble**," for nothing, perhaps, which occurred during the whole reign excited more interest or concerned a greater number of people. Two things must be remembered before we can properly understand the history of the "**South Sea Bubble**."

To begin with, England for the first time had got heavily into debt. In old times it had often been the practice of the kings of England to borrow money from their subjects or from foreigners for the purpose of carrying on wars or for helping allies. But the money so borrowed was the *king's debt*, and was repaid or not, according to the temper or power of the king. It was only since the reign of William III. that the practice, which has since become so common, of borrowing large sums by authority of Parliament in the name of the nation had been largely resorted to.

When a country like England wishes to borrow money, what is done is to give power to the Government by an Act of Parliament to borrow the sum required from anyone who will lend it, and to promise the lenders a fixed rate of *interest* to be paid every year in return for the use of the money. There are many ways in which the money may be borrowed, and the interest for the use of it paid. In some cases the Government asks that the money shall be lent, but does not promise to pay it back at any particular time. It promises, however, to continue to pay a fixed rate of interest until the amount lent has been repaid. The greater part of the debt of the country, which is sometimes spoken of as the "*Consolidated Debt*," is of this kind. Everyone who has lent money to the Government under this arrangement is said to hold a share of the "*Consolidated Debt*," or, as it is usually called, to be a holder of "*Consols*." For every hundred pounds which has been lent to the country the Government undertakes to pay a fixed rate of interest as long as the debt is unpaid. The rate of

¹ Extract from the City news of a daily newspaper, 1897.—The meaning is that on the day in question purchasers were willing to give £113 in exchange for the promise of the British Government to pay them £2 15s. a year.

interest at present paid on **Consols** is £2 15s. for every hundred pounds, or in some cases only £2 10s.

Sometimes the Government only wants the money for a short time, and in such case an undertaking is given to pay back the money at a very early date. There is also another way, which was used much more frequently in the last century and at the beginning of this than it is at the present time; this is the plan of *borrowing on life annuities*.

According to this plan, the Government says to those who are willing to lend money, "If you will lend us so much, we will give you in return a promise to pay you a fixed sum every year for the use of it. We will pay you regularly *as long as you live*, but when you die there will be an end of the matter; you will have had payment during your lifetime. If you live long, you will have made a good bargain; if you die soon, you will have made a bad bargain."

When the Government borrowed by way of Life Annuity it always had to pay a higher rate of interest than when it borrowed in the ordinary way, when it was bound to go on paying interest to a lender while he lived and to his representatives after he was dead. No man knows how long he may live, and, therefore, no one would take the risk of lending on such uncertain terms unless he were sure of being well paid for doing so. On the other hand, there are always plenty of people ready to take a chance if they are well paid for it. The interest paid on the *life annuities* was high, and if a man were fortunate enough to have a long life, he got the benefit of the high interest for many years. If, on the contrary, he died soon after buying his annuity, the Government got the profit, for it no longer had to pay any interest.

At a time when it was not very easy to save money safely, when there were few banks, and when business was not carried on upon the great scale with which we are familiar nowadays, the plan of investing in *annuities* became very popular; for it always gave to the purchaser of the annuity the certainty of a livelihood in a time when there was great uncertainty in respect of almost every other way of putting by money. It thus came about that in the reign of George I. a large number of people were the owners of Government annuities. The Government had been compelled to borrow large sums of money for the purpose of carrying on war abroad and at home, and much of the money so borrowed was borrowed upon annuities of the kind that have been described.

The South Sea Bubble.

*"Ye wise philosophers, explain
What magic makes our money rise
When dropt into the Southern main;
Or do these jugglers cheat our eyes?"—Swift.*

The **Debt of England** at this time was large, though not nearly so large as it became in later years; but it was so great that many people were seriously alarmed, and thought that if the borrowing went on much further the country would be unable to pay its debts at all, and would become *bankrupt*. Among those who were most anxious to pay off and get rid of part of the debt was **Robert Walpole**, who had now (1717) become a member of the Ministry, and of whom we shall hear a great deal more as we read on.

Walpole soon found out what he was in search of. A company called "**The Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas,**" or, more shortly, "**The South Sea Company,**" had lately been formed. The object of the company, as its name tells us, was to carry on trade with the various countries lying in the southern seas on the continent of South America, and among the islands of the Atlantic. Walpole made a bargain with the South Sea Company. He said: "If your company will undertake to pay off the debt which the Government owes to those people who have got annuities, the Government on its part will give the company certain advantages in the way of money and credit, which will be of the greatest value to it."

The company agreed to these terms and set to work to carry them out. They offered to pay anyone who had a Government annuity the amount that was due to him; but instead of offering to pay the annuity in money, as the Government had done, they gave to each person **shares in the South Sea Company**. It was believed that these shares would become very valuable, because everyone thought that the company, now that the Government supported it, would be very successful, and would make large profits. Everyone was delighted at the chance of exchanging the Government annuities for shares in the company; they readily gave up the certainty of always getting a small sum from the Government in the hope that they might, by good fortune, get a much larger sum from the company.

At first all went well; indeed, so great was the number of people



BUYING AND SELLING SOUTH SEA SHARES.
(From the *Painting* by E. M. Ward, R.A. in the *National Gallery*.)

who wanted to get shares in the new company that the price of the shares went up to ten times their real value. In other words, people were ready to pay a thousand pounds for a hundred pound share; they believed that the success of the company would be so great that they would receive a sufficient profit to repay them even for so great an expenditure. Soon the success of the South Sea Company led to the starting of other companies, some of them of the most absurd kind.

The most extraordinary scenes took place. The eagerness to buy shares was so great that people soon ceased to inquire whether what they were buying were of any real value, or whether the new companies could ever make a profit at all. Never had such excitement been known. But the fashion of buying shares in companies having once been set, everyone was in a hurry to follow it, without inquiring what was the business the company intended to undertake and what chance it had of succeeding. Men and women of all classes, high and low, rich and poor, were all alike caught by the new fever, all of them hoping and longing to get rich with the least possible trouble and in the shortest possible time. It has been reckoned that the shares in all the different companies amounted to no less than **£500,000,000**, or twice the value of all the land in England.

For a short time all seemed to go well. Many people really became rich by selling shares at very high prices; those who had bought the shares believed that they had become rich. It was not long, however, before the "bubble burst." It soon became clear that all the fine promises that had been made to the shareholders by those who got up the different companies were worth nothing at all. Then there came a terrible time for those who had spent so much money in buying the worthless shares. Hundreds had spent all they possessed in buying pieces of paper which were perfectly worthless. They saw themselves ruined in a day; and soon, throughout the whole of England, people learned with dismay that the "South Sea Bubble" had burst, and that those who had hoped to make their fortune by it had ruined themselves.

Great indignation was felt by those who had lost their money, many of whom, however, had no one but themselves to thank. It was said—and probably with truth—that some of the king's ministers had made money out of the South Sea Company, and several of them were turned out of office and out of Parliament. So great was the suffering and loss in the country, that Parliament was compelled to interfere and to help some of the chief sufferers. It was on this occasion that the name of **Robert Walpole** first became well known. He was a man

of a prudent disposition, very skilful in dealing with money matters, and he soon won the confidence of the people and of Parliament. From this time forward his influence increased each year, till, in the next reign, he became one of the most powerful Prime Ministers that this country has ever known.

Throughout the whole of his life Walpole was a great lover of peace, and it was to him more than to anyone else that England owed her escape from war during the remainder of the reign of George I. Many attacks were made upon him by the Jacobites, and by some of the Tory party, but George wisely continued to support him.

On the 10th of June, 1727, George I. died in Germany. He is not a very notable figure in our English history. Plain, dull and uninteresting, caring more about Hanover than he did about England, he was only too willing to let his Ministers govern the English people, whose language he did not understand and whose country he did not love. But the reign of George I. is not without importance. The very fact that the king was unable to take a very active part in governing the country helped to make the Government chosen by the majority of Parliament stronger than it had ever been before. The fact that a Hanoverian king had lived on to the end of his reign in undisputed possession was also important. The Stuarts and their French allies had done their best to overthrow him and had failed. The people of England had clearly shown that, though they did not care much for the new king himself, they preferred a *Protestant Hanoverian* who would govern them in their own way to a *Stuart* who was supported by the Roman Catholic Powers, and who still believed in the "*Divine Right*" of kings to govern nations against their will.

CHAPTER LXV.

GEORGE II.

1727—1760.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF GEORGE II.

George II., King of Great Britain and Ireland, Elector of Hanover, son of George I. and Sophia Dorothea, b. 1683, became king 1727, d. 1760.

Caroline of Anspach, wife of George II., m. 1705, d. 1737.

Frederick, Prince of Wales, eldest son of George and Caroline, b. 1707, d. 1751.

Augusta of Saxe-Coburg, wife of Frederick, Prince of Wales, m. 1736.

George, son of Frederick and Augusta, b. 1738, afterwards king.

William Augustus, Duke of Cumberland, son of George II. and Caroline, b. 1721, d. 1765.

Anne, daughter of George and Caroline, d. 1759.

Mary, daughter of George and Caroline.
 Louisa, daughter of George and Caroline,
 m. Frederick V. of Denmark.

James Edward Stuart, the "Old Pretender."

Charles Edward Stuart, the "Young Pretender."

Louis XV., King of France.

Charles VI., Emperor, d. 1740.

Charles VII., Emperor 1742, d. 1745.

Maria Theresa, Empress.

Francis I., Emperor, husband of Maria Theresa.

Frederick William I., King of Prussia, d. 1740.

Frederick the Great, King of Prussia.

Philip V., King of Spain, d. 1746.

Ferdinand VI., King of Spain, d. 1759.

Charles III., King of Spain.

Peter II., Czar of Russia, d. 1730.

Anne, Empress of Russia, d. 1740.

Ivan VI., Czar of Russia (imprisoned for 18 years, murdered 1764).

Elizabeth, Empress of Russia 1741.

Principal Ministers of George II. :—

Robert Walpole, Earl of Orford, d. 1745.

Viscount Charles Townshend, d. 1738.

Rt. Hon. Charles Townshend.

Thomas Pelham, Duke of Newcastle.

John Carteret, Earl of Granville, d. 1763.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, b. 1708.

Henry Pelham, d. 1754.

Great Writers :—

Daniel Defoe, b. 1661, d. 1731.

Jonathan Swift, b. 1667, d. 1745.

William Congreve, b. 1670, d. 1723.

Richard Steele, b. 1671, d. 1729.

Henry St. John, Lord Bolingbroke, b. 1678, d. 1751.

Alexander Pope, b. 1688, d. 1744.

James Thomson, b. 1700, d. 1748.

Henry Fielding, b. 1707, d. 1754.

Samuel Johnson, b. 1709.

David Hume, b. 1711.

Thomas Gray, b. 1716.

Oliver Goldsmith, b. 1728.

Great Painters :—

William Hogarth (English), b. 1697.

Sir Joshua Reynolds (English), b. 1723.

Robert, Lord Clive, b. 1725.

General James Wolfe, killed at Quebec, 1759.

General Sir Eyre Coote.

Admiral Lord George Anson.

Great Musicians :—

J. S. Bach (German), d. 1750.

G. F. Handel (German), d. 1759.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF GEORGE II.

- 1727. George II. becomes king.
- 1739. Persian invasion of India under Nadir Shah.
- 1741. Frederick the Great occupies Silesia.
- 1742. Walpole is defeated, and retires as Earl of Orford.
- 1743. Battle of Dettingen.
- 1744. Anson returns from his voyage round the world.
- 1745. Battle of Fontenoy.
- Battle of Prestonpan.
- Capture of Cape Breton.
- Rebellion in Scotland under Charles Edward Stuart.

- 1746. Battle of Culloden.
- Madras taken by the French.
- 1748. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.
- 1752. The New Style of reckoning the Calendar adopted in the British Dominions.
- 1755. War with France in America.
- 1756. Beginning of the Seven Years' War.
- Pitt, Prime Minister.
- 1757. Battle of Plassey.
- 1759. The Wonderful Year.
- Battle of Minden.
- Battle of Quebec.
- 1760. Death of George II.

George II. and His Great Prime Minister.—Peace.

*"Get place and wealth, if possible with grace;
 If not, by any means get wealth and place."—Pope.*

It was in the year 1727 that **George II.**,⁽⁹⁹⁾ the second of the Hanoverian kings, came to the throne. He had one advantage over his father—namely, that he could speak English—but he was not distinguished in any way for his ability or his personal qualities.

The events which took place during his reign were of great

importance to our country, but the part which the king himself played was a small and unimportant one. At the same time, it must not be forgotten that the very fact of King George succeeding peaceably to the throne of his father was a matter of importance to the people of the United Kingdom. George was neither a great man nor an interesting man, but he was the representative of the *Protestant Succession*. The **Stuarts**, as we shall see, had not yet given up their hope of regaining the throne, and George owed his security and the goodwill of his subjects much more to their fear of further civil war and of the return of the Stuarts, than to any good qualities of his own.

The reign of George II. lasted thirty-three years, and may roughly be divided into two periods—the

first, a period of *peace* under the ministry of **Walpole**; and the second, a period of *war* under the ministry of **Pitt**, or of those who were influenced by Pitt. It was during the earlier and peaceful portion of the reign that the country gained that wealth and strength which enabled it to pass through the stormy period of war not only with safety but with success.

The first part of the reign was, as has been said, marked by the influence of **Walpole**. In the account of the last reign we learnt something of this remarkable man, and saw how he first gained importance by his wise action after the bursting of the "South Sea



GEORGE II.

Bubble." But it was not till the reign of George II. that he became beyond all doubt the most powerful man in the kingdom, and acquired a position which enabled him to retain his office of Prime Minister for the long period of twenty-one years.

It is time, therefore, to devote a few lines to a description of this great man and of the methods by which he obtained and kept his power.

Robert Walpole (born 1676, died 1745), afterwards created **Earl of Orford** (1742), first became a Minister of the Crown when he was thirty-two years of age. He resigned his office of Prime Minister in 1742, when he was sixty-six years of age, and after twenty-one years' service. The pictures of Walpole, and all that we know about him from those among whom he lived, tell us the same story. He was a



SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.

plain, stout, rather ungainly man, whose conversation and manners, even in those days, were considered rather coarse. He was a great lover of power, and was never content to share his power with others. Indeed, throughout his life it seemed to be his aim to get rid of all those men of ability who surrounded him, so that he, and he alone, might become the centre of the Government. To this fact his fall was at last largely due; for he succeeded in driving so many of those who might have been his friends into the ranks of his enemies, that at length he found the party opposed to him so strong that even his influence and cleverness could no longer resist its attacks.

But while Walpole often seemed anxious to get rid of those who he feared might become his rivals, he at all times took care to surround himself with an army of supporters who were attached to him, not only by the favours which they had received at his hands, but by the hope of further favours to come. It must not be forgotten that Walpole lived in a time when government by Party had become the rule in England, and when, in order that a Minister might keep his place, he was bound to have the support of the majority in Parliament. Walpole knew this well, and he took steps to win to his side, and keep on his side, the support of Parliament, and especially of the House of Commons.

The plan which he adopted is one which would, happily, be impossible at the present time. It was a simple one, and consisted in buying or bribing Members of Parliament. In some cases payments were actually made in money: more often they were made in the shape of offices, which were given to Members or to their friends as the price of their support. There can be no doubt whatever that for many years Walpole bribed and bought the support of Parliament. It must be said, however, that the practice was common at the time, and that he was by no means the only person who adopted it.

On the contrary, it was the regular custom for leaders of the great parties to reward their followers, or to endeavour to buy the support of their enemies, by the promise of money, offices, and pensions. The practice was a very bad one, and Walpole, no doubt, carried it to a greater extent than it had ever been carried before, but it is only fair to say that the crime of bribing was not looked upon in those days in the same way that it now is, and that Walpole only followed the custom of the times.

It is only just, also, to Walpole, to say that, though beyond doubt he did bribe Members of Parliament and others, he never forgot what he thought to be the real interest of the country, and he bought votes in order to enable him to carry out what he really believed to be the best and wisest policy for the country. The best and wisest policy he throughout his life believed to be the policy of *Peace*. It was his one hope and aim to avoid a quarrel with any nation, and he showed the greatest possible skill in keeping out of war. It is true that at last he allowed England to become engaged in a war with Spain and France, but it was sorely against his will that he accepted a course with which he did not agree.

Walpole would, perhaps, have a higher place in the list of great Englishmen if he had refused to take part in carrying on a war which he believed to be wrong and unwise. It was, however, always truly said of him that he preferred to give way rather than rouse great opposition.

One of his wisest proposals—a proposal for a new tax—roused fierce opposition (1733). Walpole knew that his plan was a good one, and it has since been adopted; but rather than create a riot, he gave way and withdrew his plan.¹

Walpole was in many ways a really great man, and England owes much to his wisdom and good government. He quite understood that the strength of this country greatly depended upon its wealth, and upon the success of its trade and commerce; and he knew that trade and commerce could only flourish in a country in which there was confidence in the Government.

Of Walpole, too, it may be said that he bestowed a boon upon English farmers for which perhaps they have never been sufficiently grateful to him. It has been said that the man who confers the greatest benefit upon mankind is he who makes two blades of grass grow where only one grew before. Walpole did not quite do this, but he did something very like it. It was he who first introduced the growth of *Root Crops*, such as *Turnips*, into England. It seems strange, but it is a fact that up to this time English farmers had known nothing of such crops. Now, however, they learnt to grow the roots which, ripening in the autumn, provided their cattle with good food throughout the winter, and went far to double the value of their farms.

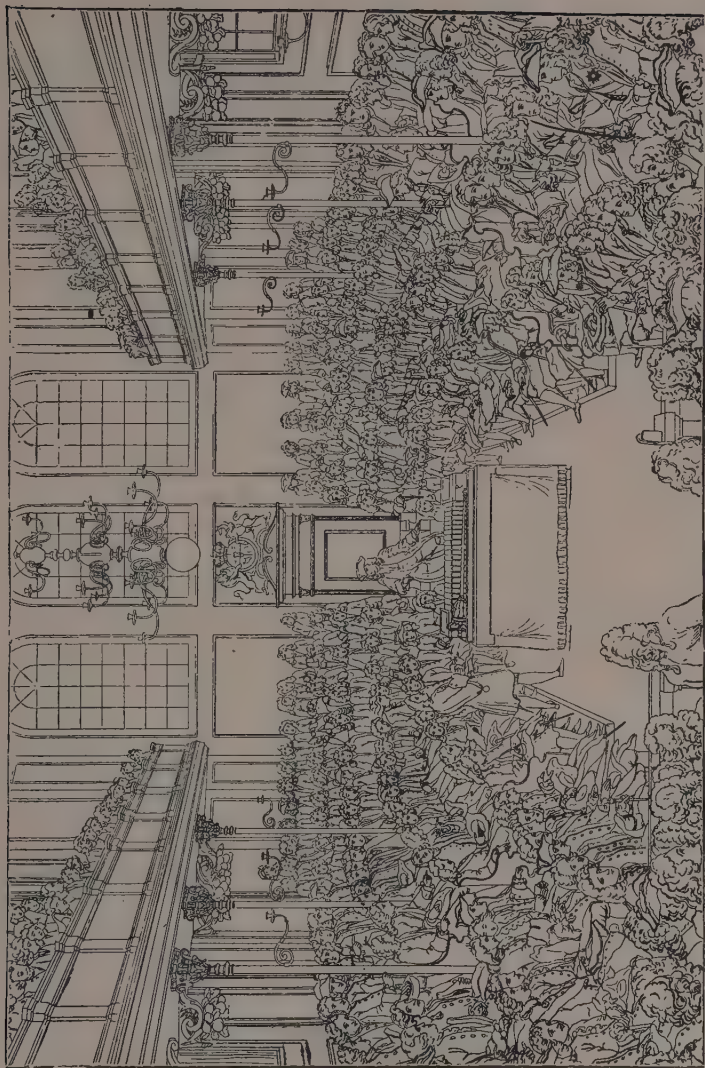
“Jenkins’s Ear,” and War at Last.

“Behold, how great a matter a little fire kindleth!”

Epistle of St. James, iii. 5.

For some years Walpole’s power remained almost undisputed. In the year 1737, however, **Queen Caroline**,⁽¹⁰⁰⁾ the wife of George II., died, and her death proved a disadvantage to Walpole. Caroline had always been a good friend to the Prime Minister, and her influence with the king had made her a useful helper to him in all his troubles. In Queen Caroline Walpole lost a friend; in her son, Frederick Prince of Wales, he found an enemy. Frederick, a worthless young man, had quarrelled with his father, and he soon became the centre of a party

¹ This was a plan for putting an Excise Duty on Wine and Tobacco. An Excise Duty is one which is collected within the country from those who sell the taxed article, instead of being collected at the seaports from those who import it. At present there is a Customs Duty upon Wine and Spirits imported into the country, and an Excise Duty upon Spirits manufactured within the country.



THE HOUSE OF COMMONS IN 1742.

which was made up of all those who were discontented with the Government, and especially of those who were enemies to Walpole.

This new party grew in numbers every year, and Walpole by his own conduct added to its strength. His hatred of a rival led him to get rid of some of the cleverest of his supporters, and these former friends, dismissed from the Ministry and from the king's favour, soon became leaders of the new party.

At last, in the year 1737, the Opposition felt themselves strong enough to make an open attack upon the Prime Minister. They declared that in his efforts for peace he had allowed the interests and honour of the United Kingdom to suffer. They said that **Spain** had insulted and injured British traders, and that the time had come when war was necessary for the safety and prosperity of the country.

It was quite true that there had been many quarrels between Englishmen and Spaniards in their fight for the trade of South America. Acts of violence had been committed on both sides; and if the Spaniards were at fault, so, too, were the English. But the minds of Englishmen were easily inflamed by the stories which reached them. They heard of the injustice which had been done to their own seamen; and they heard little of, or paid no attention to, the Spanish side of the question.

The angry feeling against Spain grew fast, and at last it passed all bounds when the Opposition brought up in Parliament the story of "*Jenkins's Ear*." Jenkins was a sea-captain who had traded to South America. His story was that he had been taken by the Spaniards, and that his ear had been torn from his head by his cruel captors. Jenkins certainly had one ear missing; and, in proof of the truth of what he said, he would take an ear from a box which he carried and show it to his audience. Whether Jenkins ever had his ear cut off by the Spaniards at all is not certain. There were some who declared that Jenkins was a rogue who had had his ear cut off in the pillory by the common hangman; but whatever were the truth of the story, it served its purpose. Parliament and the people, already angry with Spain, readily believed the tale which agreed with their own view. The cry was all for war, and Walpole, much against his will, at last gave way and war was declared (1739).



Continental Quarrels, and the Rise of Prussia.

"That formidable confederacy of France, Austria, Russia, and Sweden, seemed determined to inclose and crush the King of Prussia."—Horace Walpole, Lord Orford: "Memoirs of the Last Ten Years," written of the beginning of the year 1757.

*"The year concluded with a torrent of glory for the King of Prussia."
(The same, written of the end of the year 1757.)*

We have now come to the beginning of the long series of wars which lasted, almost without stopping, from 1739 to 1815, or seventy-six years—wars in which England was almost always concerned. It is not possible in this book to follow all the ins and outs of the quarrels which took place between the different nations of Europe. As in the previous reign, there were many changes, and those nations which one year had been bitter enemies, fought in the next year as allies against those who had but a short time before been their friends.

But, though the history of all this fighting is rather bewildering, there are one or two things which stand out quite clearly throughout it all. Whatever happened, **England** and **France** were sure to find themselves opposed to each other; that is the first thing to notice. It was enough for **France** to take the side of any other European nation to make **England** for the time that nation's enemy, and the same thing might be said with equal truth of the behaviour of France towards those who sided with England.

The second thing to notice is the rise of the **Kingdom of Prussia**. Already Prussia had become an important State under its Prince or Elector, **Frederick**, known as the "**Great Elector**," and the Prussian army had been formed and prepared for war.

In 1740, the thirteenth year of George II., Frederick, known in history as "**Frederick the Great**," ascended the throne of Prussia. His active spirit, his determination, and his skill in war, made him one of the most remarkable and most important personages in Europe. It was his aim and object to make the Kingdom of Prussia the chief among the German States. For many centuries **Austria** had held the place which he sought for Prussia; and hence it was against Austria, under the rule of the famous Empress, **Maria Theresa**, that he fought for the greater part of his life. When France and Austria sided together, Frederick fought them both; when France offered help against Austria, he accepted French help.

England, as the great *Protestant* country, was justly looked upon as the natural friend and ally of Prussia; but at one time, when Frederick had joined with France against Austria, Prussia was actually at war for a short time with England, partly because England was friendly to the Austrians, and partly because England was sure to be found on the opposite side to France. It is pleasant, however, to think that though Prussia and England were for a short time supposed to be at war with one another, no battle was ever fought between them, nor have Englishmen and Prussians at any time shed each other's blood in war.

The third great point which we have to notice in the wars of George II., as in the wars of George I., is that, while the fortunes of England in Europe varied greatly—while British armies, though often victorious, often suffered defeat—outside Europe, *in the countries beyond the seas*, in **America**, in **India**, in the **West**, and in the **East**, the power and influence of Britain grew steadily from year to year, while that of her great rivals—France and Spain—grew less and less.

We must now go back to Walpole and the war in which he had engaged so much against his will. It would have been better if the Prime Minister had dared to be true to his own policy, for by giving way he did not succeed in keeping the power for which he cared so much. His enemies had become strong enough to defeat him, and at last, in the year 1742, he gave up his office and retired from the Government. He had been thirty-four years in the Government and for twenty-one years Prime Minister.¹

Thus ended the public life of the great "*Peace Minister*." Already England's greatest "*War Minister*" was rising into fame. In 1735 **William Pitt** entered Parliament, and joined the party of the Opposition around the Prince of Wales. In a very few years Pitt was to become an even greater and more famous Minister than Walpole himself; but between the fall of Walpole and the time when Pitt became a Minister several years of trial and trouble had to be passed through by this country.

¹ On his retirement Walpole was made Earl of Orford.



The "Young Pretender" and His Friends.

*"The news frae Moidart cam' yestreen
Will soon gar mony ferlie;¹
For ships o' war hae just come in
And landit Royal Charlie."—Lady Nairne.*

In 1741 a fierce war broke out between Frederick, King of Prussia, and Austria, then under the rule of the Empress Maria Theresa. **England** took the side of **Austria**; **France** sided with **Prussia**. A British army, composed of British and Hanoverian troops, entered Flanders. On the 27th of June, 1743, a battle was fought at **Dettingen**, on the banks of the Maine, in Germany, between the forces of the British and their allies on the one hand, and the French on the other. King George himself was present with the army, and behaved well in the presence of danger. He was the last English king actually present in battle. The king's army was outnumbered, but the bravery of the troops not only averted defeat, but secured a hardly-won victory, and the French were compelled to retreat. Meanwhile, however, Prussia had beaten Austria, and had succeeded in taking from it the **Province of Silesia**, which from that day down to the present time has formed part of the kingdom of Prussia; and thus England and France were left to fight out a quarrel which both had begun on behalf of another nation. On the 11th of May, 1745, a mixed army of British, Dutch, and Austrian troops was defeated by the French Marshal Saxe, after a hardly contested battle at **Fontenoy**, in Holland. The battle itself had little influence upon future events.

Now that France was openly at war with England, it was natural that the French should do all in their power to weaken their enemies at home as well as to defeat them abroad. An easy way presented itself to the French Government. **James Stuart**, the son of King James II.—whom we have read about under the name of the "Old Pretender"—was advanced in years and disinclined for further adventures, but his cause was not without a champion.

His son, **Charles Edward Stuart** ⁽⁹⁷⁾—known in history as the "*Young Pretender*," and called by many the "*Young Chevalier*"—was as ready as his father had been to strike a blow for the recovery of the crown which he claimed. For a long time his chances had seemed hopeless.

¹ "Make many wonder."

Walpole had kept the peace with France; and without the aid of France success was not to be hoped for. Now, however, matters had changed, and the French Government, though not very forward in giving Charles Edward either men or money, was quite ready to encourage him in an adventure which might do harm to England and could do no harm to France.

In 1745—the same year as the battle of Fontenoy—Charles sailed



CHARLES EDWARD STUART, "THE YOUNG PRETENDER."

from France with a small French squadron of two ships—the *Elizabeth* and the *Doutelle*; but a British 58-gun ship, the *Lion*, caught them at sea, and, after a sharp fight, drove them back to port. A second time Charles put to sea, and this time succeeded in reaching the coast of Scotland in the little *Doutelle*.

He landed at Loch na Nuagh, in Inverness-shire, on the 25th July,

1745, and immediately called upon the Highlanders, and all friends of the Stuart cause, to help him. In some respects, the "Young Pretender" had an advantage over his father; for he was really a handsome and brave young man, who earned the love, if not the respect, of all who fought for him.

"Charlie is my darling, the young Chevalier,"

so runs one of the Scottish songs. Perhaps the Scots, like many other people in similar cases, thought more of their young Prince after they had lost him than while they had got him.

At the same time, there can be no doubt that Prince Charlie was a man not unworthy to play an important part. But if the "Young Pretender" had some advantages on his side, in some respects he was far worse off than his father had been; for, in the first place, the Government of George II. was in a much stronger position than that of George I. had been, and the Jacobite party in England was no longer prepared to fight. In the second place, since the landing of the "Old Pretender," in 1715, roads had been made in the Highlands by General Wade, and it thus became possible for the Royal troops to march into the country of the MacDonalds and other clans on whose help the Pretender chiefly relied.

The "'Forty-Five."

"As for the people, the spirit against the rebels increases every day. Though they have marched thus far into the heart of the kingdom there has not been the least symptom of a rising, not even in the great towns of which they possessed themselves. They get no recruits since their first entry into England, excepting one gentleman in Lancashire, 150 common men, and two parsons at Manchester, and a physician from York. But here in London the aversion to them is amazing."—Horace Walpole's letters to Sir Horace Mann, 9th December, 1745.

There is not space here to tell at length the story of the **Rebellion of 1745**. For a short time the slow movements and the bad generalship of the Royal generals favoured Charles, and allowed him to win a brief success. **General Cope** marched northwards from Edinburgh with an army of 3,000 men. Instead of meeting him, the Pretender passed by him and hastened southward. Sir John Cope, fearful for the safety of the capital, took ship at **Inverness**, and landed at **Dunbar**. It was

too late, however; already Charles had reached **Edinburgh**, and taken possession of Holyrood, the ancient palace of the Scottish kings. The strong castle of Edinburgh was safely held for the king, but the city was at the mercy of the rebels.

On the 21st of September was fought the battle of **Prestonpans**, upon the Firth of Forth, a few miles to the east of Edinburgh. Cope's troops were unable to resist the fierce charge of the Highlanders; they broke, and fled in confusion from the field.

How the Highlanders fought both on this occasion, when victory crowned their arms, and on other occasions, when the fortune of battle turned against them, is finely described in the following passage taken from Sir Walter Scott's great novel of "**Waverley**":—

"Both lines were now moving forward, the first prepared for instant combat. The clans of which it was composed formed each a sort of separate phalanx, narrow in front, and in depth ten, twelve, or fifteen files, according to the strength of the following. The best armed and best born, for the words were synonymous, were placed in front of each of these irregular subdivisions. The others in the rear shouldered forward the front and by their pressure added both physical impulse and additional ardour and confidence to those who were first to encounter the danger.

"The clansmen on every side stript their plaids, prepared their arms, and there was an awful pause of about three minutes, during which the men, pulling off their bonnets, raised their faces to heaven and uttered a short prayer; then pulled their bonnets over their brows, and began to move forward, at first slowly. The pipes played, and the clans rushed forward, each in its own dark column. As they advanced they mended their pace, and the muttering sounds of the men to each other began to swell into a wild cry.

"The line of the regulars was formed directly fronting the attack of the Highlanders; it glittered with the appointments of a complete army, and was flanked by cavalry and artillery. But the sight impressed no terror on the assailants.

"'Forward, sons of Ivor,' cried their Chief, 'or the Camerons will draw the first blood!' They rushed on with a tremendous yell. The rest is well known. The horse, who were commanded to charge the advancing Highlanders in the flank, received an irregular fire from their fuses as they ran on, and, seized with a disgraceful panic, wavered, halted, disbanded, and galloped from the field. The artillerymen, deserted by the cavalry, fled after discharging their pieces; and the Highlanders, who dropped their guns when fired, and drew their broadswords, rushed with headlong fury against the infantry."



The March to Derby—Culloden.

*"Lochiel, Lochiel! beware of the day
When the Lowlands shall meet thee in battle array!
For a field of the dead rushes red on my sight,
And the Clans of Culloden are scattered in flight."*

Campbell : "Lochiel's Warning."

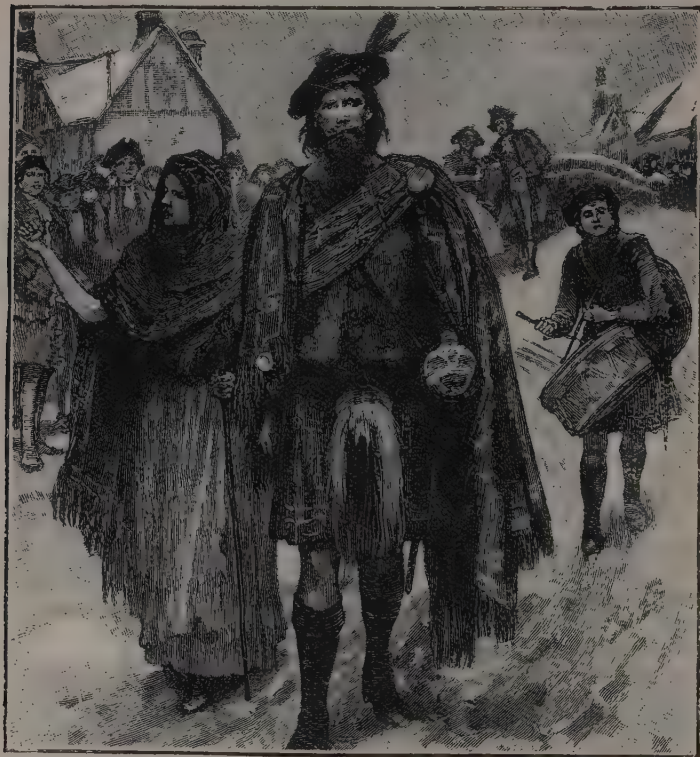
After some delay the rebels crossed the Border, and marched southward into England. But the time had gone by when they could hope for success in that country, and the Royal army, despite its slow movement, was now gradually collecting together and surrounding the Pretender's little force. Still the Scots advanced without finding serious opposition, till on the 4th of December, 1745, they entered the town of **Derby**. But this was the furthest point they were to reach.

The greatest alarm prevailed in London. The king actually prepared to leave the country; and it was believed by all that, should the Pretender reach London, a French invasion would immediately follow. Luckily, at this point the strength of the invading force seemed spent; and instead of pressing on to London, the Scots turned and made their way back again to the North. The entry of the Scottish army into Derby is a memorable event in our history. It was, happily, the last occasion on which a successful invading army has made its way on to English soil. It was the last effort of civil war in England. For many a year afterwards that day was remembered, and there are those still alive who may have actually heard from the lips of men who were children at the time the story of the coming of the wild Highlanders, with their claymores and their kilts, their bagpipes and their strange speech, into a peaceful town in the very heart of England.

Charles hastened back to Scotland, where he was joined by a considerable number of friends and by a small party of French troops. His army, now raised to 9,000 men, had become formidable, and had shown its strength in a battle which was fought against the Royal troops under General Hawley at **Falkirk**, in Stirlingshire, January 23, 1746. For the last time, the charge of the Highlanders was successful, and Hawley's troops were forced to retreat. But by this time the **Duke of Cumberland** with his army had reached Scotland.

On the 16th of April the two forces met upon **Culloden Moor**, near

Inverness. For a while it seemed as if victory would once more favour the Pretender; and the fierce charge of the Highlanders broke for a time the lines of the regular troops. But the jealousies which at all times divided the Highland clans now made themselves felt with fatal effect. The MacDonalds declared that they, and they alone, had the



PRINCE CHARLIE'S VANGUARD AT MANCHESTER.

right to charge upon the right of the line. Charles had placed them on the left; the insult was one not to be borne, and they refused to budge. Cumberland's artillery and the steady bravery of the English troops restored the fortunes of the battle; the rebels were defeated, and the Highlanders fled to their mountains.

Charles Edward escaped almost alone from the field of battle. For many days he was a hunted fugitive through the country over which he had hoped to rule. A high price was offered for his capture; but the Highlanders to whom he was compelled to trust himself were all true men—not one of them betrayed him. A romantic story is told of how the Prince was aided in his flight by a young lady of the name of **Flora MacDonald**, who led him past the careful watch of the enemy, disguised as her serving-maid, in a woman's clothes. It was not till the end of September—five months after the battle of Culloden—that Charles succeeded in escaping to France.

In the Highlands the rebellion was punished with great severity by Cumberland. It was the object of the Government to break up the clans, and so to put an end at once and for all to the danger which always existed as long as their strength was unbroken. The wearing of the Highland garb—the kilt and plaid—was forbidden; and many of those who had sided with the Pretender were put to death, or deprived of their lands as rebels taken in arms. It is possible that unnecessary harshness was shown in putting down the rebellion, but there can be no doubt that the victory of Culloden saved the United Kingdom from a very serious disaster. The memory of “Bonnie Prince Charlie” lingered long among the faithful Highlanders; and a few scattered Jacobites who had followed their leader into exile continued to speak of “King Charles III.,” who was some day to win back the crown of his fathers. But that day never came; and with the close of the “*Forty-Five*,” as the rebellion which broke out in this year came to be called, the danger of a Stuart Restoration, and with it the fear of civil war, died away.

The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.

*“Now Europe balanced, neither side prevails,
For nothing's left in either of the scales.”—Swift.*

But though the war had come to a successful conclusion at home, it was being carried on less fortunately on the Continent. In 1746, the year of the Battle of Culloden, **William Pitt** first became a Minister of the Crown. Before his death he was destined to raise the fortunes of the country to the highest point, but his influence had not yet become greatly felt, and in Europe our troops suffered disaster. The Duke of Cumberland, who had been sent with a British army to

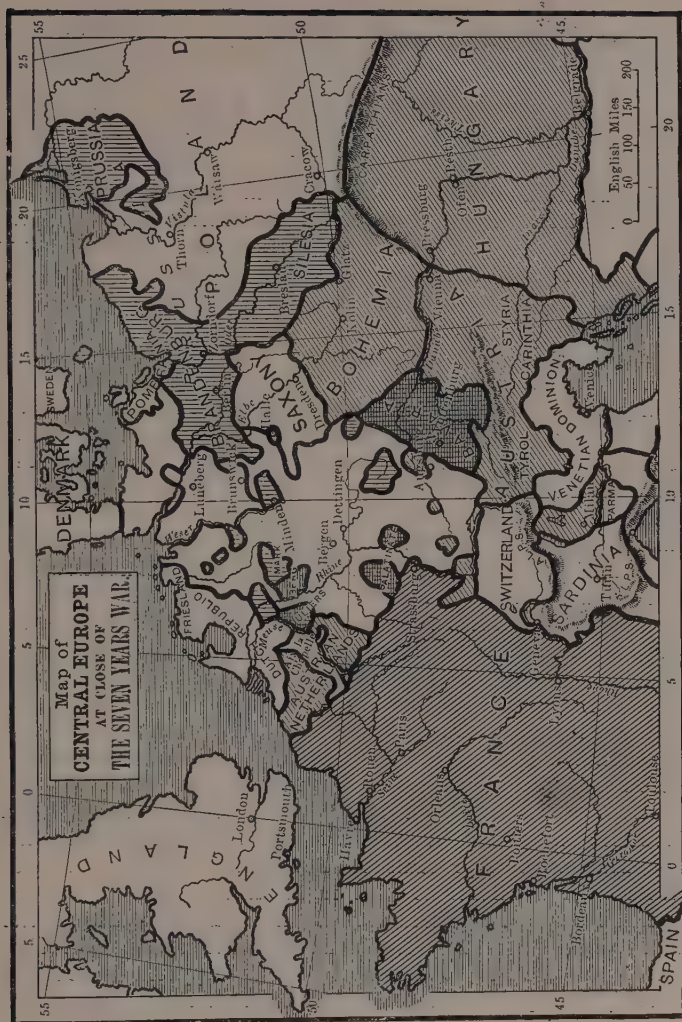
Flanders, was defeated at the battle of **Laufeldt**, and the fortress of **Bergen-op-Zoom**, on the borders of Holland, was taken by the French.

But once more it must be noted that while bad fortune overtook our armies in Europe, in distant countries across the sea British power still grew, and grew at the expense of the power of France. If we look at the map of **Canada**, we shall see that off the northern point of Nova Scotia is an island called **Cape Breton Island**. Its importance is made clear directly we study the map, for it guards the entrance to the great **Gulf of St. Lawrence**, and the mouth of the **River St. Lawrence**, by which the cities of **Quebec**, **Montreal**, and **Ottawa**, and the great **Lake of Ontario** are reached. In the year 1745 **Cape Breton Island** was captured from the French by a British expedition; and what was more important than the capture of one island was the fact that the British Navy showed its superiority over its opponent in almost every sea.

But, though there were gains and losses on both sides, little profit seemed to come to any of the nations engaged in the war, and all parties were ready to join in signing the Treaty of Peace at **Aix-la-Chapelle**¹ in October, 1748. All conquests which had been made during the war by England or France were given up. France gave up **Madras** in India, which had been taken by General **Labourdonnais** on September 1st, 1746, and England gave up **Cape Breton Island**.

Now, at last, after many years of fighting, there was once more peace, but unluckily it was a peace which was to last for a very short time. The Prime Minister was **Henry Pelham**, younger brother to the then Duke of Newcastle; but the most active man in Parliament, and already one of the most powerful, was **William Pitt**. The Ministry of Pelham did not last long, for he died in the year 1754. Three years earlier, **Frederick**,⁽¹⁰¹⁾ Prince of Wales, who so long had been an enemy to his father's Government, had also died. His death was not a loss to his country, for he was a man who could hardly have made a wise king. He was little esteemed or respected by any party.

¹ The short period of peace which followed the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was not without value to the country, for it allowed a very important change to be made in the rate of interest payable upon the National Debt. The interest was now reduced to £3 for every £100, or to 3 per cent. This was a very great saving to the country, which had been paying 5 per cent., 6 per cent.—and, indeed, in the reign of William III., as much as 8 per cent.—on all the money which was borrowed by the Government. Three per cent. is a very small rate of interest to be paid for the loan of £100; but the Government of England had now become so strong, and was thought to be so secure, that those who had saved money were willing to put it into the "Three Per Cents.," because they knew that, whatever happened, they were certain to be paid, and would not lose their money. For more than one hundred and fifty years the interest paid by the Government of the United Kingdom remained at 3 per cent.; and it was not till the year 1891 that the amount of interest was reduced still further to £2 15s., and in some cases to as little as £2 10s., for every £100 borrowed.



War by Land and Sea—The Loss of Minorea.

... dans ce pays-ci il est bon de tuer de tems en tems un Amiral pour encourager les autres."¹—Voltaire; "*Candide*."

On the death of Pelham, his brother—the **Duke of Newcastle**—became Prime Minister. Newcastle was a man without either judgment or ability, whose only strength as a Minister came from the support of the king, whom he flattered and sought to please in every way, and from the large sums of money which he was able to spend in buying the support of Members of Parliament and others on whom he depended.

Between Pitt and Newcastle there was from the first a fierce enmity, and Pitt's proud and eager spirit refused to submit to be ruled by a man whom he knew to be stupid, and whom he believed to be careless of the honour and welfare of England. It soon became clear that if the policy of Pitt were to prevail there would be war, for already conflicts had begun between English and French, both in America and India, and Pitt was determined that neither in the West nor in the East should the influence of Britain be diminished.

Soon the war which had been threatening so long broke out into flame, both in America and in India. Fighting which had begun between the English and French on the spot, without the consent of the Governments of either Britain or France, was continued, much against Newcastle's will, with all the force of the two countries; and no longer in distant countries only, but in European waters, and upon the continent of Europe. King George, who, like his father, cared more about Hanover than he did about England, was most concerned for the safety of his Electorate. He allied himself with his old enemy, Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, and, through the Duke of Newcastle, sent large sums to Frederick and the other German princes who undertook to fight on his side.

But though Pitt desired the war, and wanted nothing better than an opportunity to carry it on, he was determined that Newcastle should not direct it; and so fierce was his opposition that at length, in the year 1756, Newcastle was driven from office. It was none too

¹ Translation: "In this country (England) it is considered a good plan to put an Admiral to death every now and then, *in order to encourage the others*." Voltaire, the famous and witty French writer, is here laughing at the English for their treatment of Admiral Byng. The phrase "*pour encourager les autres*" has become a common saying.

soon ; for already a great calamity had befallen our armies. A French expedition had been sent to attack the island of *Minorca*, in the Mediterranean—an island which since the year 1708 had been in the possession of Great Britain. **Admiral Byng** was sent with a fleet to raise the siege. He fell in with the French fleet, but too late to prevent the landing of the troops. Having counted the ships, he thought them too strong to meddle with, and withdrew without firing a gun. After a brave resistance, the garrison of *Minorca* was forced to surrender.

Byng returned to England to be received with an outbreak of fierce anger. What could be more disgraceful than that a British admiral should desert a British garrison without striking a blow to save it ? The Admiral was tried by court-martial and sentenced to death. The court-martial did its duty ; but the law which compelled it to sentence Byng to death was a hard one, and it would have been a wise and a right thing if the king had pardoned the prisoner. He desired to do so, and his Ministers, and Parliament itself would rather have spared the life of the Admiral. But the fury of the people knew no bounds ; they called for a victim, and Byng was sacrificed. He was shot by a file of Marines on board the *Monarch*.

It might have been right to shoot Admiral Byng as a punishment for his failure, but it could not have been right to shoot him because the people clamoured for his death. It is hard even for those who have been brought up all their lives as lawyers, and who have been trained as judges to be impartial and just, not to make mistakes in their decisions. It is quite unreasonable to look for justice or reason in the judgments of a multitude of men who have never been taught to weigh the value or the truth of charges, and who are moved only by their own passions and their own angry feelings.



CHAPTER LXVI.

CLIVE, WOLFE, AND WASHINGTON.

War—England and France in India and America.

*"'Tis dangerous, when the baser nature comes
Between the pass and fell-incensèd points
Of mighty opposites."*

Shakespeare: "Hamlet."

WHILE Britain had lost an important possession in Europe in the shape of the island of **Minorca**, her empire was being slowly but surely extended in other lands. Before reading this and the next two chapters, it will be well to look carefully at two maps in the best atlas we can find. In these two maps we shall be able to read the end of the story of which the beginning only can be told in the reign of George II.

The first map is that of the **Peninsula of India**. From where the dark shading at the top indicates the lofty ranges of the **Hindu-Kush**, down to the point where **Ceylon** hangs like a pearl-drop from the mainland at the bottom, we see a continuous red line drawn round the peninsula. That red line means that India from north to south, from **Chitral** to **Cape Comorin**, and the island of **Ceylon** as well, now form part of the *British Empire*, of which we are all citizens.¹

There will be seen on the map patches of a different colour which show the "*Native*" States, which are governed by Native Indian Princes, but which are friendly to us and all of which are controlled by the Government of India. When we come to look at the scale of miles at the side of the map, and to measure India from top to bottom and from side to side, we shall find that it is more than 2,000 miles long and almost 2,000 miles broad. Its area is 1,560,130 square miles, and its population is no less than 287 $\frac{1}{4}$ millions. This is indeed a great and wonderful possession to be ruled over by the people of our little islands; and when we learn how different was our position in India

¹ The total area of British India is 964,993 square miles, and the population is 221,172,200 (1891). The area of the Native States is 595,167 square miles, and the population amounts to 66,047,487 (1891).

one hundred and fifty years ago from what it is now, the wonder becomes greater still.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century the power of Britain in India was represented only by a few traders and officers sent out by the **Honourable East India Company**. Their principal station was in **Fort George**, which was close to, and now forms a part of, the city of **Madras**. There were a few other British settlements, but it could not even be said that, among the European Powers which possessed settlements in India, England was the most important. The first place was held by *France*, whose chief town was **Pondicherry**, about 100 miles to the south of Madras. **Pondicherry** is French to this day, but it is almost the only possession which France retains to tell us of the great power which that country once possessed in the Peninsula.

How it came about that the red line which marks the limit of the British Empire spread and spread until it surrounded the whole country, how the power of France in India was broken, and how, one after another, the various Native States were either conquered or won to the side of the British Government, will be very shortly told in this chapter; and in telling the story we shall tell also that of the life of one of the greatest Englishmen who ever set foot in India—namely, **Robert Clive**. For the story of the rise of British power in India and the story of the life of Robert Clive are one and the same.

And now let us turn to another map representing a country in the West—a country, or, indeed, a continent, greater and richer even than the splendid peninsula of India. Let us turn to the map of the *North-American Continent*. We all know what are the great facts which that map can teach us. From the *Arctic Circle*, on the north, down to the borders of *Mexico*, only 26° north of the Equator, we see everywhere familiar English names, but the red line which marks the limits of the British Empire does not include the north-western corner of the continent, nor the enormous country which stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific south of the 49th parallel. These portions form **The United States of America**, the great English-speaking Republic of the West. Between **Alaska** and the northern frontier of the United States lies the immense stretch of the **Dominion of Canada**, under the British flag; while in the Atlantic the red line surrounds **Newfoundland**, the **West Indian Islands**, and **Bermuda**.

On the American continent the last hundred and fifty years have seen a change even greater than that which we have witnessed in India. In the year 1700 the power and influence of Britain in North America was small, and was disputed, as in India, by the power of *France*. The English colonists who had settled in the **New England**

States and in **Canada** found themselves menaced on every side by the French, who held large territories in the Southern State of **Louisiana**, and also in the **Valley of the St. Lawrence**. Already there was grave reason to fear lest the French should join hands between their northern and southern possessions behind the back of the English settlers, and thus hem in the New England States and shut them off for ever from the great continent to the West.

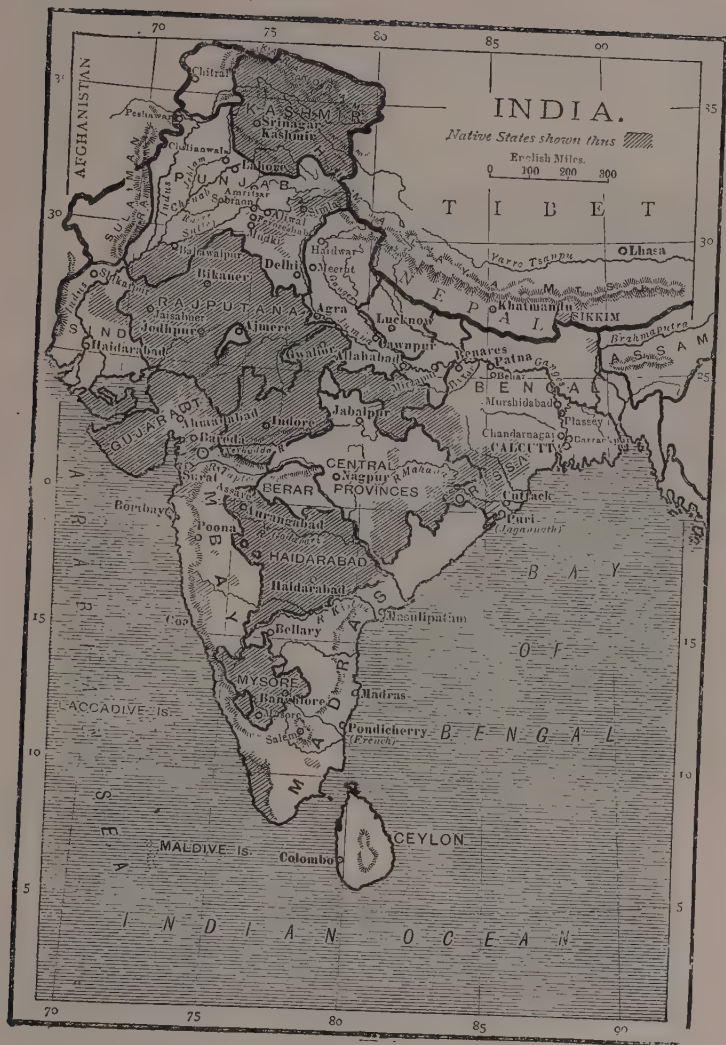
How it came about that the power of **France** faded away and was replaced by the power of **England**, how it was that the *English* language and not the *French* became the common speech of 70,000,000 people, must be told in this book; and to this story must be added another which will tell us how it came about that the English-speaking people of North America came to be divided among themselves, and how out of the whole English-speaking population which owned George II. as its king there grew up not one great State but two—the Dominion of Canada, ever loyal to the British crown, and the United States, the great Republic which owes it no allegiance.

The story of the fall of the power of France in America and the rise of the power of Britain is the story of the life and death of **General Wolfe**. The story of the division among the English-speaking people and of the rise of the United States is the story of **George Washington**. And it is of these three great men, **Clive**, **Wolfe**, and **Washington**, that we are now about to read.

Clive.

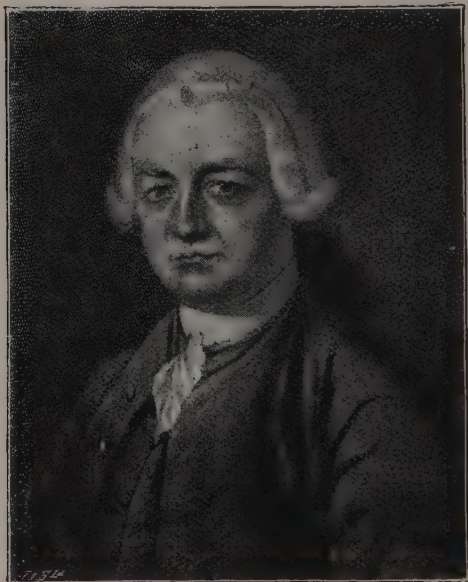
"It might have been expected that every Englishman who takes any interest in any part of history would be curious to know how a handful of his countrymen, separated from their home by an immense ocean, subjugated, in the course of a few years, one of the greatest empires in the world."—Macaulay: "Lord Clive."

In 1744, the year before the march of the Pretender to Derby, a young man of the name of **Robert Clive**, who had obtained employment as a writer or clerk in the service of the Honourable East India Company, landed at Madras. It was nearly two years since he had set out from his home in Shropshire; for in those days of sailing ships a voyage to the East lasted many months, and Clive had been forced to break his journey, much against his will, at more than one place on the way out.



When the young man first entered his office in Madras, the East India Company, of which he was a servant, was little more than a business concern, which owned a certain number of Settlements, or "Factories," in India, at which they were allowed by the native rulers to carry on their trade.

The chief of these settlements were at **Bombay**, on the west coast ;



ROBERT, LORD CLIVE.

(After the portrait by Gainsborough.)

at **Calcutta**, in the Bay of Bengal; and at **Madras**, on the south-east coast, in that part of India known as the Carnatic. The French, like the British, had also important trading settlements in India, and, thanks to the genius and bravery of **Dupleix**, the Governor, and of **Bussy**, a French officer, they had succeeded in obtaining a stronger position than their English rivals.

At the time of which we speak India was in a state of confusion and conflict. The *Mogul Emperors* who ruled in Delhi had for a long time past exercised authority over the greater part

of India; but in the year 1739 the Mogul Empire was overthrown, and the various princes and chiefs who had in the past recognised the rule of the Moguls now entered into a fierce struggle among each other for the right to rule India. They little thought that the despised power which was represented by the British merchants in a few coast towns was to win that which they hoped to obtain. Still less could they have imagined that the young clerk who had just begun his duties in an office in Madras was soon to dictate terms and treaties to the strongest of them.

One of the first events in the struggle between the various native

princes was the entry of the French into the fight. A small French force joined one of the native princes as his ally. Then suddenly it became clear to all India how great was the power of a drilled European force, however small. Victory crowned the French arms again and again. Dupleix quickly took advantage of the opportunity. He believed, and he had good reason to believe, that by making use of the quarrels between the various Native States, France might become mistress of India. He had, however, not reflected that what one European power could do, another could do equally well, or better. No sooner had the French been called in on one side than the British were called in on the other. On either side the number of European soldiers was very small; but wherever the Europeans appeared they seemed irresistible.

At first the fortunes of war were against the British and their allies. Madras itself was taken by the French (1746); while an attack on Pondicherry, the principal French settlement, was defeated. But the fighting had given Clive his opportunity. He hated his office-work and longed for the work of a soldier. He offered his services as a volunteer, and they were accepted. When Madras fell he refused the French terms which would have bound him not to serve against them again, and he escaped capture. He soon found plenty of employment in his new profession.¹

From that day forward he became the soul of the English party in India. To brilliant bravery in the field he added all the qualities which go to make a great general. Although peace had been made between England and France in 1748, there was no peace between the two countries in India itself, for the soldiers of the two countries took part, as before, as allies of the native princes on either side.

The tide of victory, which had hitherto been in favour of the French party, now turned. In 1751 Clive, with a tiny force, captured the town of Arcot, and held it through a seven weeks' siege. The name of the defender of Arcot became famous throughout India. Again and again he turned threatened defeat into victory by his energy and his bravery. He returned to England for a short time in 1753, but was soon sent back again to fill a high office in the service of the Company.

It was at this time that there took place the terrible tragedy which is connected in our history with the name of the "Black Hole of Calcutta" (1756). Surajah Dowlah, the Nawab (or native ruler) of Bengal, had attacked the British settlement of Calcutta, and the force was too small to defend it. The British retired in haste to their

¹ Madras was given back to England in 1748, in accordance with the terms of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (see page 638).

ships, but 146 persons were left behind. They were taken prisoners, and confined in a little room in which they could barely stand.

The next day they were to be brought before Surajah Dowlah. It was the height of the Indian summer, and the prisoners knew that they could not live through the night in that confined space. They begged to be brought before the Nawab. They were told that the Nawab was asleep and no man dare wake him. The night passed and morning came, and only twenty-three of the unhappy prisoners were alive. But it was not long before Calcutta became once more British. Early in the next year it was retaken by Clive and Admiral Watson, and has ever since been the chief of the British possessions in India.

The Battle of Plassey, and the Conquest of Bengal.

"From Clive's third visit to India dates the purity of the administration of our Eastern Empire. . . . He first made dauntless and unsparing war on that gigantic system of oppression, extortion, and corruption. In that war he manfully put to hazard his ease, his fame, and his splendid fortune."—Macaulay : "Lord Clive."

On the 23rd of January, 1757, was fought the battle of **Plassey**, near Calcutta, in which Clive, at the head of a little army of 950 Europeans and 2,300 natives and half-castes, boldly confronted an army of 68,000 men, with fifty-three guns, under Surajah Dowlah, assisted by a small body of forty Frenchmen. Never was a battle more easily won, and seldom have greater consequences followed a single battle. But the victory cannot be put down altogether to the valour of the victorious army, for there can be no doubt that a large number of Surajah Dowlah's troops turned traitors on the field of battle. The British lost twenty-three killed, of whom seven were Europeans, and forty-nine wounded, of whom thirteen were Europeans. The enemy's loss was about 1,000 men, but their army was broken up and dispersed, and the victory made Clive and the English masters of Bengal.

From this day the name of Clive became famous throughout India, and also throughout the United Kingdom. On his return to London he became Member of Parliament for Shrewsbury. He was made an Irish peer, with the title of Lord Clive, in 1761. He returned more than once to India, and on each occasion gave fresh proof of his skill and bravery as a soldier and of his wisdom and statesmanship as a governor. Under his rule the British, who had nearly been driven

out of Bengal, became masters of the three great provinces of **Bengal**, **Behar**, and **Orissa**, which lie to the north of Calcutta, and the influence of the British was extended through the Native States, and especially through the great district of **Oude**. The influence of the French, which only a few years before had been so great; was for a time all but destroyed.

Two other great achievements must be remembered when we speak of Lord Clive. It was he who first tried to carry out the rule, which is now strictly observed in India, that those who take part in the government of the country *shall never accept payments from those whom they govern, or engage in trade for their own benefit*. This is a most important rule, for nothing can be worse for those whose duty it is to govern wisely and well than to take payments from those whom they govern. Such payments soon become bribes paid by wealthy men who wish to obtain favours. In the same way, there is always a great danger in allowing the servants of a government to engage in trade on their own account; for there is a great temptation held out to them to govern not in the interests of the country but in their own interests and with the object of making money.

Clive did not altogether succeed in compelling the servants of the East India Company to observe the new rules, but great credit is due to him for being the first who really tried to carry them out.

In the year 1766 he won still another victory, which was perhaps greater and more difficult to win than the Battle of Plassey. In that year the British officers belonging to the Native regiments in the Company's service, being discontented with their pay, mutinied, and threatened to disobey the orders of the Company. It was a moment of terrible danger, and Clive knew that if he were once to give way, all would be lost. He knew that discipline and obedience to orders are the first duties of a soldier. He refused to listen to the threats of the officers. With a few who were faithful, he went to the different regiments and pointed out the wickedness and folly of the mutiny, and threatened instant punishment to those who did not return to their duty at once. His firmness succeeded; nearly all the officers returned to their duty; a few only were punished. From that day to this the British officers in India have ever been among the most faithful and courageous servants of their sovereign and their country.

In 1767 Clive left India for the last time. The end of his life was not a happy one, for he was bitterly attacked by those who had been offended by what he had done in India. So bitter were the attacks that at last the unhappy victim, tormented beyond all endurance, lost his reason, and ended his great career by taking his own life (1774).

It is to him, more than to any other man, that we owe our great Indian Empire; and it is by reading the history of his life that we learn how the "red line of British Dominion" in India extended so far and so fast in the reign of George II., and how the French power faded away and was destroyed.

Wolfe.

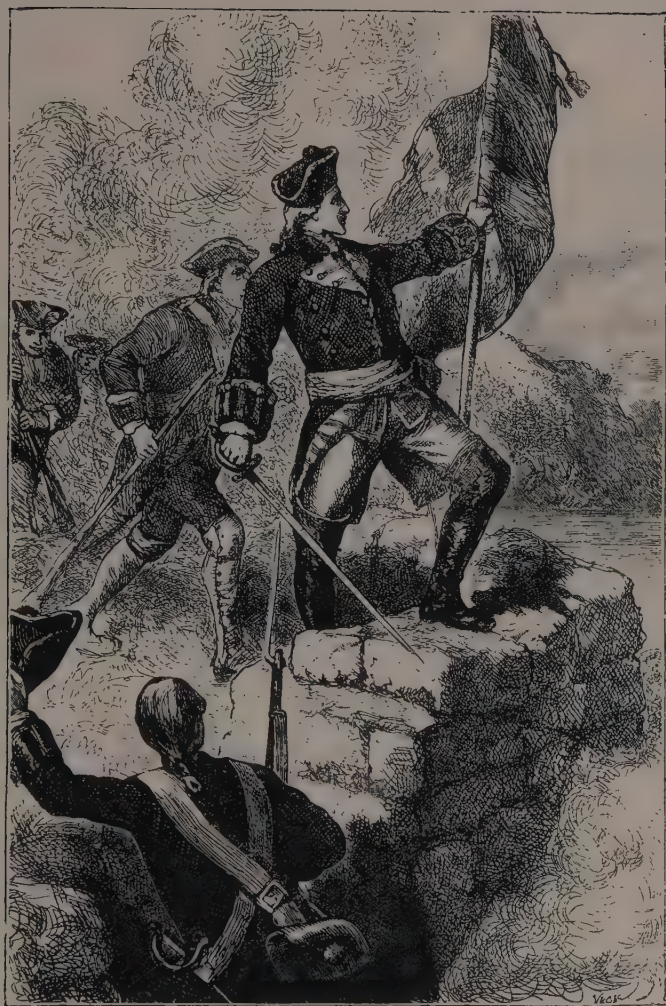
"Under these was Wolfe, a young officer who had contracted reputation from his intelligence of discipline, and from the perfection to which he had brought his own regiment. The world could not expect more from him than he thought himself capable of performing. He looked on danger as the favourable moment that would call forth his talents."—*Horace Walpole, Lord Orford: "Memoirs of the Last Ten Years."*

We have just seen how, owing to the genius of Clive, England and not France gained the upper hand in India. We have now to learn how it was that in the far *West*, as well as in the far *East*, the power and the right to govern fell into the hands of English-speaking people.

In the *West*, as in the *East*, it seemed for a time as if the power of France were destined to prevail over that of England; and in the year 1758 the condition of the British Colonies in America was one of great danger. In that year, however, Pitt determined that he would make a great effort to regain the ground that had been lost. A large fleet and army under Lord Boscawen were sent across the Atlantic, while the colonists themselves were formed into regiments under the command of officers appointed by the King. Among these officers was **George Washington**, who in the command of his Virginian troops was able to give an early proof of his powers as a leader and a soldier.

For some time the campaign continued without great advantage to either side. **Louisburg** was captured by the British, who were in their turn defeated near **Ticonderoga**. **Fort Duquesne** was gallantly captured by **Washington**, who had been despatched from General Forbes's force for the purpose of taking it. The Virginian officer planted the "Union Jack" upon the captured fort, and gave to the place the name of **Pittsburg**, in honour of the great British Minister in whose service he was fighting. From the year 1758 the fortunes of the struggle against France in America began to improve.

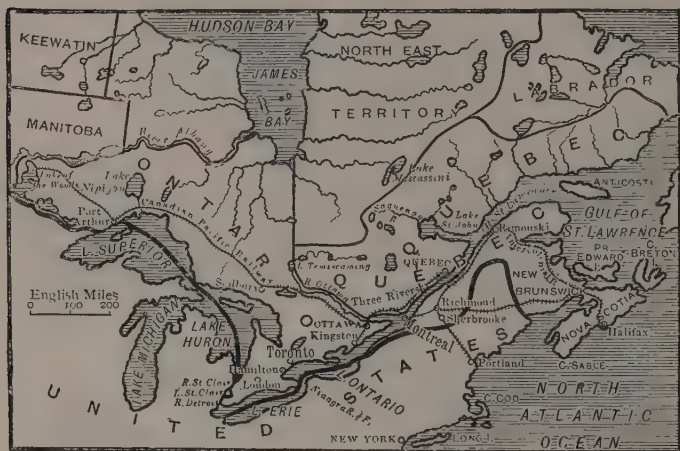
We have already seen that in her battles near home, England during the early years of Pitt's time in office had not been very for-



MAJOR WASHINGTON PLANTING THE UNION JACK ON FORT DUQUESNE.

tunate; but, despite bad fortune, Pitt had always believed in the power of Britain if only that power could be rightly used.

As a great Minister at home, he himself could do much, but he could not do everything. He required men of courage and ability to carry out the plans which he made. He had found such a man in Clive, and Clive had worked wonders in India. He now sought for another leader who could do in the West what Clive had done in the East. He was fortunate enough to find one. In the same year in



MAP OF EASTERN CANADA AND THE GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE.

which the battle of Plassey was won, a British expedition attacked the French seaport of **Rocheport**. The expedition was a failure; but one man, by his courage, attracted the attention of Pitt. This was **Colonel Wolfe**, an officer serving under General Mordaunt.

A year later, Pitt chose Wolfe for a command in America. The English colonists were hard pressed in that country. **Montcalm**, who commanded the French army, was a brave and skilful soldier, and he had the great advantage of being in possession of the strong fortress of **Quebec**, on the River St. Lawrence. The fortress of Quebec is situated on a rocky hill which overhangs the river. It was strongly defended, and seemed able to resist all attack; but few things are impossible to a brave and resolute commander whose soldiers will follow him anywhere.

Just beyond Quebec is the high ground, known as the **Heights of Abraham**. The steep crags seemed in themselves to form a sufficient defence, and they were ill-guarded. Under cover of the night, Wolfe moved his troops up the river till they came to the foot of the Heights. They climbed them in the dark. The French sentries fled, and when morning rose the British army stood on the Heights. Montcalm at once gave battle, to save the city. The action was long and fierce. On the French side 1,500 men were killed. Of the British there fell 640, but the greatest loss which the British army sustained was that of its General.

Twice wounded as he was encouraging his troops, Wolfe was struck the third time by a bullet which pierced his chest, and this time the wound proved mortal. He was borne

from the field, and, as he lay dying, one of his officers spoke to him. "See how they run!" said he. "Who run?" asked Wolfe. "The enemy," replied the officer; "they give way in all directions." "God be praised!" cried the General; "then I die happy!" and in the moment of victory he passed away. The French, too, had lost their leader, **Montcalm**, who was wounded in the battle and died the next day.

But though Wolfe was dead, the victory which his skill and courage had secured was complete. The city of Quebec surrendered; and from



MAJOR-GENERAL WOLFE.
(From a painting by F. Turin.)

that day the fortunes of the British in North America steadily improved, while those of France, deprived of the services of the great Montcalm, and harassed by the perpetual attacks of the British fleets, declined.

A Wonderful Year. 1759—John Wesley.

"My Lord, I am sure I can save this country, and nobody else can."—
William Pitt to the Duke of Devonshire.

Nor were Plassey and Quebec the only victories which now came to cheer the people of Britain, who had been too long accustomed to mismanagement and defeat. The year 1759 must be for ever memorable in the history of our country, for it was in that year that British arms were triumphant in every quarter of the world, and British power established in many a place in which it has remained unshaken through all the misfortunes of later years.

Early in the year came the news of the taking of **Gorée**,¹ on the West Coast of Africa. A little later came the news of the capture of the French island of **Guadeloupe**, in the West Indies. Both Gorée and Guadeloupe have since been handed back to France²; but **Quebec**, which fell to the British arms on the 13th of September, is to this day a British city.

In the same year (1759) came the news of British naval victories at **Lagos Bay** and at **Quiberon Bay**, where **Admiral Hawke** fought and destroyed the French fleet in a full gale of wind. In Germany, a British and Hanoverian force defeated the French at **Minden**, on the River Weser; while early in 1760, in India, **Colonel Coote**, afterwards General Sir Eyre Coote, gained an important victory over the French at **Wandewash**, between Madras and Pondicherry. Meanwhile the allies of Britain, supported by large sums of money voted by Parliament under Pitt's advice, held their own, or defeated their enemies on the Continent. **Frederick the Great**, in a wonderful campaign in which he fought in succession the armies of Austria and Russia, saved not only his kingdom of **Prussia** from destruction, but came out of the war feared and respected by all Europe. Well might Horace Walpole, the witty son of the great Minister, declare that it was necessary to ask every morning what new victory had been won for fear of missing a single triumph.

Pitt, whom all men looked upon as the man who had made these

¹ Taken in 1758.

² In 1814.

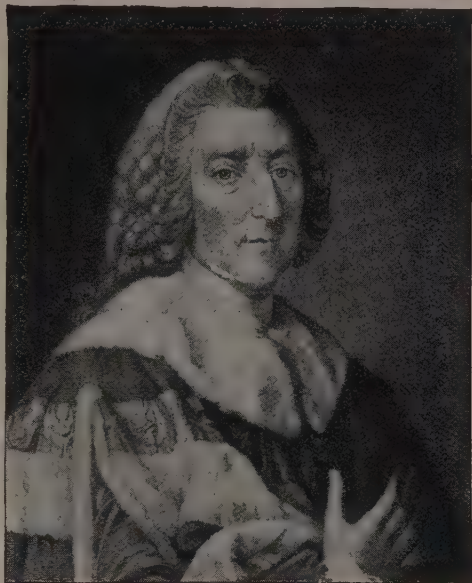
successes possible, was all-powerful; and the reign of King George ended in the midst of the glories and the successes of the country.

In October, 1760, the king died. He could do but little to serve the country, but he had done one thing for which he deserves its gratitude. He had supported his great Minister, William Pitt. We shall read in the next chapter how soon a change came over the scene, and how in a few years the country fell from the height to which Pitt had raised it, to a condition in which it seemed as if it must be ruined for ever by the misfortunes which overtook it.

WESLEY.

Before we close the story of the reign of George II., we must pass for a moment from the accounts of war, and from the record of the exploits of great statesmen and successful generals, to say a word or two about the life and work of a very remarkable man, who laboured in the cause of peace and religion. The name of **John Wesley** (b. 1703, d. 1791) is even better known at the present

day than it was in the days of George II.; for the "Wesleyans," who still follow the doctrines which he taught, may now be numbered by thousands, and the Wesleyan chapel is familiar in every part of England. Wesley was born at Epworth in Lincolnshire; he was educated at Charterhouse School, and at Christ Church Oxford. He became a clergyman of the Church of England, and was soon known among his friends for his earnestness and goodness. At that time the Church of England, to which Wesley belonged, had,



WILLIAM PITT, LORD CHATHAM.

(From a painting by R. Brompton.)

in his opinion, become inactive in many places, and its clergy, he thought, did not give enough attention to preaching, nor did they set a proper example to their congregations.

He joined a society of young men at Oxford known as "Methodists," and with his friend, **George Whitefield**, devoted himself to teaching and preaching, first in England and then in America. He returned from America in 1738, and again joined Whitefield, who, with his Methodist friends, had been preaching in the west of England. The teaching of these two earnest and able men drew together enormous congregations, and the number of the Methodists, of whom Wesley now became the leader, rapidly grew. Whitefield and Wesley soon found that they could not agree, and to the latter was left the work of drawing up the rules which have since guided the "Wesleyan Methodists," the name by which his followers came to be known.

Wesley remained all his life a clergyman of the Church of England; but, after his death, the Wesleyans separated from the Church, and have ever since remained distinct. There can be no doubt that, by the earnestness of his preaching and by the beauty of his own life, John Wesley did great good not only to his own followers but also to the Church of England, whose clergy learnt from him lessons which they in turn practised. Many of them, though they did not join the Wesleyan Methodists, were taught by the example of John Wesley how great was the power of earnest preaching, and how much need there was for them to be active and earnest in doing the sacred work for which they were appointed.

When speaking of John Wesley, we must not forget to speak also of his brother, **Charles Wesley** (b. 1708, d. 1788), whose name will be long remembered as the writer of many hymns which are still sung in our churches and chapels, and the words of which are familiar to thousands of Englishmen throughout the world. Among the best known of these hymns are those beginning:—

"Jesus, lover of my soul."

and

"Oh, for a heart to praise my God,
A heart from sin set free."

CHAPTER LXVII.

GEORGE III.

1760—1820.

The Loss of the American Colonies.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.

George III., King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Elector of Hanover, son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, and Augusta of Saxe-Coburg Gotha, and grandson of George II., b. 1738, became king 1760, d. 1820.

Sophia Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, wife of George III., m. 1761, d. 1818.

George, afterwards king, b. 1762.

Frederick, Duke of York, b. 1763, d. 1827.

William, Duke of Clarence, afterwards king, b. 1765.

Edward, Duke of Kent, m. Victoria of Saxe-Coburg, b. 1767, d. 1820.

Victoria, daughter of the Duke and Duchess of Kent, afterwards queen, b. 24th May, 1819.

Ernest, King of Hanover, fifth son of George III., b. 1771.

And two other sons and six daughters.

James Edward Stuart, The "Old Pretender," d. 1765.

Charles Edward Stuart, The "Young Pretender," d. 1788.

Henry Benedict, Cardinal of York, brother of the "Young Pretender," last male of the Stuart line, d. 1807.

Louis XV., King of France, d. 1774.

Louis XVI., King of France, beheaded 1793.

Louis XVII., son of Louis XVI., was a prisoner during the time he should have reigned, d. 1795.

The First Republic, 1792-1804.

Napoleon Buonaparte, First Consul, afterwards Emperor of the French, b. 1769, d. in exile 1821.

Louis XVIII., King of France, brother of Louis XVI., became king 1814.

Maria Theresa, empress.

Francis I., emperor, consort of Maria Theresa, d. 1765.

Joseph II., emperor, d. 1790.

Leopold II., emperor, d. 1792.

Francis II., emperor, became Emperor of Austria only in 1804.

Frederick II., "The Great," King of Prussia, d. 1786.

Frederick William II., King of Prussia, d. 1797.

Frederick William III., King of Prussia.

Charles III., King of Spain, d. 1788.

Charles IV., King of Spain, abdicated 1808.

Ferdinand VII., King of Spain, 1808.

Joseph Buonaparte, brother of Napoleon, King of Spain from 1808 to 1813.

Elizabeth, Empress of Russia, d. 1762.

Peter III., Emperor of Russia, d. 1762.

Catherine II., wife of Peter III., Empress of Russia, d. 1796.

Paul, Emperor of Russia, murdered 1801.

Alexander I., Emperor of Russia.

Presidents of the United States:—

George Washington, from 1789 to 1793; d. 1799.

John Adams, from 1797 to 1801.

Thomas Jefferson, from 1801 to 1809.

James Madison, from 1809 to 1817.

James Monroe, from 1817 to 1825.

Principal Ministers of George III.:—

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, d. 1778.

Rt. Hon. Charles Townshend, d. 1767.

Thomas Pelham, Duke of Newcastle, d. 1768.

William Pitt, d. 1806.

Charles James Fox, d. 1806.

Frederick, Lord North, d. 1792.

George Canning, b. 1770.

John Stuart, Earl of Bute, d. 1792.

Warren Hastings, d. 1818.

Divines:—

John Wesley, d. 1791.

Charles Wesley, d. 1788.

George Whitefield, d. 1770.

Great Writers:—

Samuel Johnson, b. 1709, d. 1784.

David Hume, b. 1711, d. 1776.

Laurence Sterne, b. 1713, d. 1768.

William Shenstone, b. 1714, d. 1763.

Thomas Gray, b. 1716, d. 1771.

Horace Walpole, b. 1717, d. 1797.

Tobias Smollett, b. 1721, d. 1771.

Edmund Burke, b. 1729, d. 1797.

Oliver Goldsmith, b. 1728, d. 1774.

William Cowper, b. 1731, d. 1800.

James Beattie, b. 1735, d. 1803.

James Boswell, b. 1740, d. 1795.

Richard B. Sheridan, b. 1751, d. 1816.

- George Crabbe, b. 1754.
 Robert Burns, b. 1759, d. 1796.
 William Wordsworth, b. 1770.
 Sir Walter Scott, b. 1771.
 Samuel Taylor Coleridge, b. 1772.
 Robert Southey, b. 1774.
 Jane Austen, b. 1775, d. 1817.
 Thomas Campbell, b. 1777.
 Thomas Moore, b. 1779.
 Bishop Reginald Heber, b. 1783.
 George Gordon, Lord Byron, b. 1788.
 Percy Bysshe Shelley, b. 1792.
 John Keats, b. 1795, d. 1821.
 Thomas Hood, b. 1798.
- Great French Writers:—**
 François Arrouet, known as Voltaire, b. 1694, d. 1728.
 Jean Jacques Rousseau, b. 1712, d. 1778.
- German Writers:—**
 Johann Schiller, b. 1759, d. 1805.
 Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, b. 1749.
- Great Painters:—**
 William Hogarth (English), b. 1697, d. 1764.
 Sir Joshua Reynolds (English), b. 1723, d. 1792.
 Thomas Gainsborough (English), b. 1727, d. 1788.
 George Romney (English), b. 1734, d. 1802.
 John Opie (English), b. 1761, d. 1807.
- John S. Copley** (English), b. 1737, d. 1815.
Sir Henry Raeburn (English), b. 1756.
John Flaxman (sculptor), b. 1755.
Sir William Herschel (astronomer), b. 1738, d. 1822.
John Smeaton (engineer), b. 1724, d. 1792.
James Watt (inventor of the steam engine), b. 1736, d. 1819.
Sir Humphry Davy, b. 1778.
Robert Fulton, d. 1815.
- Explorers:—**
 Mungo Park, b. 1771, d. 1805.
 Sir John Franklin, b. 1786.
 Rear-Admiral Sir William Parry, b. 1790.
 Captain James Cook, b. 1728, d. 1779.
 Sir John Moore, d. 1809.
 Robert, Lord Clive, d. 1774.
 General Sir Eyre Coote, d. 1783.
 Admiral Lord George Anson, d. 1762.
 Sir Ralph Abercromby, d. 1801.
 Viscount Horatio Nelson, d. 1805.
 Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, b. 1769.
 William, Lord Howe, d. 1814.
 Baron George Rodney, d. 1792.
 Warren Hastings, d. 1818.
- Great Musicians:—**
 J. C. W. A. Mozart (German), d. 1791.
 Josef Haydn (Austrian), 1809.
 L. Beethoven (German).

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF GEORGE III.

1760. George III. becomes king.
 1761. Marriage of George III. to Charlotte Sophia.
 Bute Prime Minister.
 1762. War declared against Spain. Capture of Manila.
 1763. End of the Seven Years' War.
 Resignation of Lord Bute.
 1764. Battle of Buxar, in India.
 Watt completes his steam engine.
 1765. The American Stamp Act passed.
 1767. Illness of Lord Chatham.
 1768. Chatham resigns office.
 American colonists resist the payment of taxes.
 1769. Birth of Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, and of Napoleon Buonaparte.
 Arkwright invents the spinning frame.
 1772. Disturbances in the American Colonies.
 1774. Boston Port Act passed.
 Rebellion in the American Colonies.
 Act for the better government of Canada passed.
 1775. Battle of Bunker's Hill.
 1776. Declaration of Independence issued.
 1777. Surrender of Cornwallis at Saratoga.
 French officers join the colonists.
 1778. Death of Lord Chatham.
 The French openly join the colonists.
 1779. Death of Captain Cook.
 Siege of Gibraltar begun.
 Volunteers organised in Ireland.
1780. Relief of Gibraltar; victory of Rodney in the West Indies.
 Lord George Gordon Riots.
 War with Holland.
 1781. Surrender of Yorktown, and end of the American War.
 1782. Rodney defeats the French fleet under De Grasse off Martinique.
 Siege of Gibraltar raised.
 1783. Fox and North form a Coalition Ministry.
 Pitt Prime Minister.
 1786. Impeachment of Warren Hastings.
 1788. Madness of the king.
 1789. Commencement of the French Revolution.
 1792. War between France, Austria, and Prussia.
 1793. War declared against France.
 Execution of Louis XVI. of France.
 Irish Roman Catholic Relief Act passed.
 1795. Disturbances in Ireland.
 Cape of Good Hope taken.
 Buonaparte first becomes famous.
 1796. British Guiana taken.
 1797. Naval victory off Cape St. Vincent.
 Mutiny of the fleet.
 Victory of Camperdown.
 1798. Rebellion in Ireland put down.
 Battle of the Nile.
 1799. Defence of Acre by Sir Sidney Smith.
 Buonaparte returns to Europe, and is made First Consul.

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| <p>1800. The Act of Union with Ireland passed.
Malta occupied by the British.
Victory of Buonaparte over the Austrians at Marengo.
Battle of Hohenlinden.
1801. First meeting of the Parliament of the United Kingdom.
George III. gives up his title of "King of France."
Battle of Copenhagen.
First steamboat on the Thames.
1802. Peace of Amiens.
1803. Renewed war with France.
Addington Minister.
Battle of Assaye.
First use of coal-gas in London for lighting.
1804. Pitt becomes Prime Minister.
Buonaparte proclaimed emperor.
1805. Sir Robert Calder's naval victory over the French.
Threatened invasion of England by the French.
Battle of Trafalgar, and death of Nelson.
Defeat of the Austrians at Ulm and Austerlitz.
1806. Recapture of the Cape of Good Hope.
Death of Pitt.
Fox joins the new Ministry.
Death of Fox.
Battle of Jena.
Berlin Decree.
1807. Bombardment of Copenhagen.
Milan Decree.</p> | <p>Orders-in-Council issued in reply to the Milan Decree.
Treaty of Tilsit. Agreement between France and Russia.
1808. Sir Arthur Wellesley lands in the Peninsula.
Joseph Buonaparte made King of Spain.
1809. Battle of Corunna.
Walcheren Expedition.
Success of Sir Arthur Wellesley in the Peninsula.
Buonaparte occupies Vienna; wins the battles of Essling, Aspern, and Wagram.
1810. Enforcement of the Continental System against England causes great loss; the system finally breaks down, owing to the withdrawal of Russia.
1811. Further successes in the Peninsula.
1812. War with the United States.
French expedition to Russia.
1813. French defeated at Leipsic.
Battle of Vittoria.
Wellington enters France.
1814. Viscount Wellington made Duke of Wellington.
Abdication of Buonaparte.
1815. Escape of Buonaparte. Battle of Waterloo.
Restoration of the Bourbons.
1819. Birth of the Princess Alexandrina Victoria, afterwards Queen Victoria.
Riot at Manchester, known as the "Peterloo Massacre."
First steamboat crosses the Atlantic.
1820. Death of George III.</p> |
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"George, George, be King."

*"Evil is wrought
By want of thought
As well as want of heart."—Hood.*

GEORGE III.⁽¹⁰³⁾ was the son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, of whose death we have read, and was the grandson of George II. He was only twenty-two years old when he became king. For nearly sixty years he occupied the throne. It cannot be said that he *reigned* during the whole of that time, for many years of his life were clouded by the madness which overtook him in his later years.

In the first year of his reign he was married to **Charlotte**,⁽¹⁰⁴⁾ sister of the Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, in Germany. She proved a good wife to him throughout her life. The young king was very popular when he came to the throne. He was pleasant-looking, and, moreover, he was a thorough Englishman in his tastes. George I. and George II.

had been looked upon as German, not as English, kings. Everyone now rejoiced to see an English king speaking English, and enjoying all the pleasures of an English country gentleman.

But the reign which began with such happy promise turned out to be a time of trial and trouble. And although the kings of England were now much less powerful in many ways than their predecessors

had been, there can be no doubt that King George himself had a very great deal to do with many of the events that took place during his reign. He was not a wise man, and he was a very obstinate man, but he was very well meaning. His mother, the Princess Augusta, had always given him a great idea of what his position would be if he became king. "George, George, be king," she would say to him; and when he came to the throne it was to be a real



GEORGE III. IN HIS YOUTH.

king that George had made up his mind, and as although he was well-meaning he was not wise, the things that he did or tried to do with the best intentions turned out to be very unwise things and very bad for the country. Moreover, because he was very obstinate, and never forgot his mother's advice "to be king" whatever it cost, it often happened that, despite his good intentions, he did the greatest possible harm to the country which he really loved. In spite of all his faults, however, George III. won the affection of his people, and kept it during his life. The people knew him to be sincere, and they

liked his homely ways and his frank manner. They readily forgave his mistakes, which they were always more ready to put down to the king's Ministers than to the king himself.

In 1761 Pitt was still Minister. The party which opposed him wished to make peace with France. Pitt was against making peace, for he knew that France had really made an alliance with Spain against England, and that the peace would not last. As he could not prevent the government from making terms with the French, he resigned his office, and **George Grenville** took his place in the House of Commons. The king was glad of the change, for he could not make Pitt do just what he pleased, and he liked Ministers who would obey his orders. He soon found a man to suit him. This was **Lord Bute**, a Scotsman, whom the king had made a Minister to please his mother, the **Princess Augusta**.

Bute was an incapable man, and was detested by the people. He soon showed that he was unfit to govern the country in difficult times. Although he had been put into office to make peace, he could not prevent the outbreak of war with Spain which Pitt had foreseen, and our fleets under **Admiral Rodney** and other commanders captured many of the Spanish possessions in the West and East Indies. In 1763, however, peace was at last made, and thus ended the terrible "*Seven Years' War*."

England kept the whole of **Canada**, and the islands of **Tobago**, **Dominica**, **St. Vincent**, and **Granada**; all these remain parts of the British Empire. **Martinique** and **St. Lucia** were given back to France. The former is still *French*, the latter has since become *British*.

The same year as the peace, **Bute** gave up office, hated by all, and **Pitt** again became a member of the government. But from that time, and until his death, Pitt never really had the full support of the king, who did not like a strong Minister who would have his own way. So much did George dislike an independent Minister that whenever he could do so he chose men from the party which was known as "*The King's Friends*,"¹ and, indeed, from any party which would help to make him free of the great Whig Ministers, such as the **Duke of Devonshire**, and **Grenville**, and of their ally **Pitt**. The time had now come when the danger of having weak Ministers was great; and we shall see in the next few pages what a misfortune overtook the country.

¹ "*The King's Friends*" were those who, without belonging to either of the great parties, supported the king against both, in the hope of strengthening the power of the Crown. As they acted secretly and not openly in Parliament, they became unpopular with the English people.

The American Colonies and the Stamp Act.

"My hold of the Colonies is in the close affection which grows from common names, from kindred blood, from similar privileges and protection. These are ties which, though light as air, are as strong as links of iron. Let the Colonies always keep the idea of their civil rights associated with your government; they will cling and grapple to you, and no force under heaven will be of power to tear them from their allegiance. But let it be once understood that your government may be one thing, and their privileges another, that these two things may exist without any mutual relation—the cement is gone, the cohesion is loosened, and everything hastens to decay and dissolution."—Burke: *Speech on Conciliation with America*.

In reading the story of the reign of George II. we learnt how the greater part of **North America** had fallen into the hands of the British, and how the French had been defeated. We have now to learn how it was that the great struggle arose which ended in British North America being divided into two parts, of which the *northern*, **Canada**, remained part of the British Empire, while the *southern* became a separate country under the name of "**The United States of America**." The story is too long to be told very fully here. It is full of interest and excitement to those who read it carefully. Many great men took part in the struggle on both sides, but the most famous of all those who took part was **George Washington**, whom we have already seen fighting against the French as an officer in the service of King George II.

At this time the British in America formed thirteen different Colonies, or "States," in that part of the country which lies to the south of the River St. Lawrence. On the north of the St. Lawrence was **Canada**, with a small population, partly British and partly French. The principal towns of the Thirteen States were **New York**, **Boston**, and **Philadelphia**, all of which lie upon the Atlantic Ocean. **Quebec**, and **Montreal**, on the St. Lawrence, were the principal towns of Canada. Up to this time the British Parliament had always claimed the right to make laws for the Colonies; and though the colonial Assemblies, or Parliaments, had power to make laws also, they still remained under the power of the British Parliament sitting many thousands of miles away in London.

Parliament, however, did not interfere very often; and, while the colonists looked to Great Britain for protection against the French, there was little complaint. Now, however, that the French had been

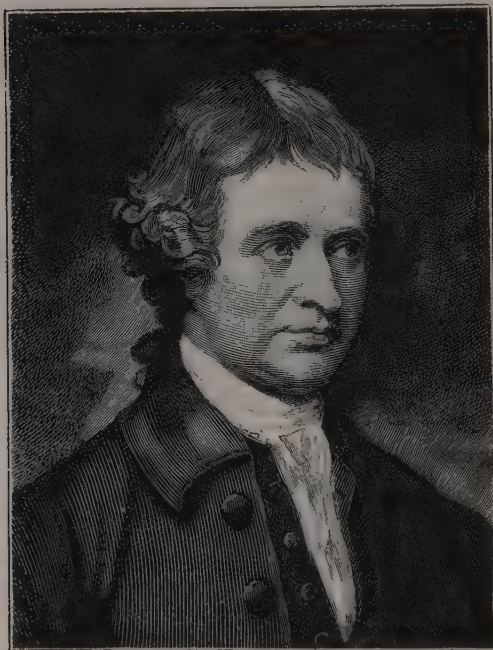
beaten, the colonists began to feel themselves strong and independent. It is probable, however, that all difficulty between England and the Colonies might have been avoided, or at any rate put off for a long time, if the Ministry at home had been wise and prudent. Unluckily, bad counsels prevailed and things were done which led to quarrels with the Colonies, and finally ended in the outbreak of war.



QUEBEC, FROM THE ST. LAWRENCE.

It was in the year 1765 that the first step was taken which gave offence to the colonists. Pitt, disgusted with the opposition of the king, had given up office. In that year **George Grenville**, the Prime Minister, brought in and passed through Parliament an Act known as the "**Stamp Act.**" By this Act the American colonists were compelled to write all their agreements and legal papers upon *stamped paper* sent out from England, for which they had to pay. The object of the Act was to get money for the public service from the American Colonies.

It was a good object, for it was quite right that the colonists should pay their share towards defending the Empire. But often a right thing may be done in a wrong way, and this was such a case. The tax—for such it was—was placed upon the colonists without their consent, and thus one of the chief liberties of British subjects was interfered with. So far back as the time of Magna Charta it had been



EDMUND BURKE.

declared that no taxes should be raised without the consent of the Common Council of the Realm, or Parliament. Parliament, it was true, had given its consent to the Stamp Act, but the American colonists had no members in Parliament, and thus they were really taxed *without their consent*. There was great indignation in America, and many people determined not to carry on any trade with England until the Act had been repealed.

This time, however, the danger was got over owing to the wisdom of

Pitt, and of Edmund Burke, the famous political writer, who now first began to take part in the debates in Parliament. Both Pitt and Burke condemned the Stamp Act, and Pitt declared that the colonists were right in resisting it.

The Act was repealed (1766), and in the same year Pitt himself became Prime Minister, and was summoned to the House of Lords as **Earl of Chatham**. Unluckily, however, the power of Pitt was not so great as it had hitherto been. In the first place, many who had

always looked to him as a man of independence distrusted him now that he had left the House of Commons and become Prime Minister; in the second place, illness kept Pitt a great deal away from Parliament, and in the meanwhile his enemies grew stronger.

Washington, and the Declaration of Independence.

"First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow-citizens."—From *"Resolutions on the Death of General Washington."*

Matters did not mend in America. During Lord Chatham's illness Parliament had passed an Act taxing tea, glass, and paper imported into the American Colonies. The colonists objected to the new duties as strongly as they had objected to the Stamp Act. Unluckily, a



THROWING THE TEA OVERBOARD IN BOSTON HARBOUR.

party grew up round the king who were determined to force the colonists to submit at any cost. The leader of this party was **Lord North**. When the news of the new duties reached America the greatest indignation was aroused; and when, in 1770, Lord North became

Prime Minister, the feeling of the colonists could no longer be restrained. There were riots in Boston, and the troops were forced to fire upon the mob. The Southern State of **Virginia**, from which George Washington came, now joined the Northern States against the British government.

This was indeed a dark time for England. On all sides the clouds seemed to be gathering round her. News came from Boston (1773) that



LORD NORTH.

some of the citizens, disguised as Red Indians, had boarded the tea-laden ships and thrown the tea into the water. A Congress was called at Philadelphia, which began to raise militia and to pass laws directed against the British government. In vain did Lord Chat-ham try to avert the danger, and to persuade the king and Parliament to avoid a struggle by making wise conces-

sions in time. Neither the king nor Lord North would listen to him.

In 1775 came the first outbreak of war; and in a fight between British troops and some of the Colonial militia at **Lexington**, in the State of Massachusetts, the British were defeated. But while the Thirteen States were driven into rebellion by the unwise action of the British government, the loyalty of the **Canadians** was secured by wise concessions, and the support of the gallant people of Canada was retained for the Old Country through all the troubled times which followed.

The rebellious colonists soon formed an army, which was placed under the command of **Washington**. In a battle at **Bunker's Hill**, near Boston, the British troops were victorious, though only after a great

loss of life. It was here that, after the line regiments had been forced to give way under the heavy fire, the word was passed: "Make way for the Marines!" and the Royal Marines, passing through the scattered ranks of the soldiers, carried the day.

From this time forward fighting went on in every part of the country. The colonists invaded **Canada**, but were defeated and driven back. Meanwhile both armies were largely reinforced. It was on the 4th of July, 1776, that Congress, as the Colonial Parliament was called, passed the famous **Declaration of Independence**, in which they declared that the Colonies were henceforward to be an independent nation, to be known for ever as **The United States of America**.

For some time the fighting continued with varying success, but, on the whole, with some advantage to the British, despite the fact that they were as a rule greatly outnumbered. It was not till later (1777) that the first great calamity befell our arms. On the 17th of October in that year General Burgoyne was compelled to surrender to a vastly superior force the whole of his army, numbering 3,500 men, at **Saratoga**, a town in the State of New York.

At home opinion was now much divided as to whether the war should be continued or on what terms peace should be made. Chatham was still in favour of conciliation, and urged Parliament to give to the Americans everything they claimed except their independence. But the king was obstinate; and though at last Lord North agreed to bring in a so-called *Conciliation Bill*, events had taken place in the meanwhile which put an end to all hopes of an agreement.

The Surrender of Yorktown, and the End of the War.

*"They have fallen
Each in his field of glory: one in arms
And one in counsel—Wolfe upon the lap
Of smiling Victory that moment won,
And Chatham, heart sick of his country's shame."*

Cowper: "The Task."

It seemed indeed as if every calamity which could overtake a nation had befallen our land at the same time. In May, 1778, Lord Chatham died. His last speech in the House of Lords was in favour of peace and conciliation. His strength failed him as he was speaking, and he had to be carried from the Chamber.

This was but the beginning of calamities. **France**, which had long been looking out for an opportunity of revenging herself upon England, now forced on war, and French troops and French ships were sent to join the army of General Washington. In **Ireland** discontent and disaffection led to threats of rebellion, and French aid was promised to Irish rebels. In **England** disturbances broke out in the heart of London, and the famous and terrible riots known as the "**Lord George Gordon Riots**" took place (1780). A mob headed by young **Lord George Gordon**



marched through the streets, burning and plundering. The leaders declared that their object was to protect the Protestant religion, and to put down Roman Catholic plots. But the movement soon became a mere riot, and peace was only restored after the soldiers had fired on the people in the streets and scores of houses had been burned to the ground or plundered.

To our long list of enemies **Spain** was now added, and in the same year **Holland** also declared war against us. There was little hope now of the colonists listening to any terms of peace. It seemed as if

Britain could never hold her own against so many enemies. Our fleet, too, was not large enough to protect the country and to keep the command of the sea. The bravery and skill of **Lord Rodney**, indeed,



secured victory over the French in more than one quarter of the world; but on the coast of America the want of ships was terribly felt. Gradually the fortunes of war turned against the British troops. The French fleets transported and protected the American troops, while

French regular soldiers were landed and fought side by side with the troops under Washington. On the 19th of October, 1781, the misfortune of Saratoga was repeated, and **General Cornwallis**, with an army of 4,000 men, surrounded and cut off from support, was forced to surrender to a mixed body of 18,000 French and American troops at **Yorktown**, in Virginia.

The war was now practically at an end, and it was clear that the British Government could no longer refuse to recognise the Independence of the United States. **George Washington**, who was justly looked upon by the Americans as the hero of the war, was made *first President of the United States*, and proved himself to be as wise and prudent in peace as he had shown himself to be skilful and courageous in war.

Thus ended the great struggle between the United Kingdom and the American Colonies which resulted in the creation of the great Republic of the United States. Whether, if wiser counsels had been listened to at home—whether, if the opinion of Chatham and Burke had been listened to rather than that of George III. and Lord North, the separation might never have taken place, it is impossible now to say; but that the war which led to the separation was a terrible misfortune no one can doubt, for it created ill-feeling between those who not only ought to have been good friends, but who would have been good friends if mistakes on both sides had not stirred up strife.

“The Darkest Hour Comes Before the Dawn.”—“United Empire Loyalists.”

*“Greater no man’s trust
Than his who keeps the fortress for the king.”*
George Eliot: “The Spanish Gypsy.”

Face to face with enemies on every side—at war with **France, Spain, Holland, Sweden, and The United States**—the darkest hour of England’s history seemed to have come. But the darkest hour is often that which comes before the dawn, and, while Englishmen were still grieving over the loss of the Colonies, and fearing still further misfortunes, cheering news reached them from more than one quarter of the world. In 1782, the year following Cornwallis’s surrender at Yorktown, **Admiral Rodney** engaged a French fleet of equal numbers near the island of **Martinique**, and totally defeated it, taking or destroying no less than eight ships.

The news of yet another triumph came to cheer the nation in the same year. For three long years the great fortress of **Gibraltar** had been besieged by the French and Spaniards. For three years the garrison, under its brave commander, **General Elliot**, had been exposed to perpetual attacks by land and sea. Tens of thousands of shot and shell had been fired into the place; and famine had tried the garrison even more than the attacks of the enemy.

In September, 1782, a last great attack was made by the enemy with huge floating batteries, and over 400 guns. Like all previous attacks, it was defeated. The great batteries were set on fire by red-hot shot fired from the British guns—they burnt to the water's edge and sank. The victory was complete; the siege was raised; and Gibraltar was safe.

The French now began to understand that, though England had been hard pressed, she was far from dead yet; and France was at last forced to consent to terms of peace which but a year or two before she had scorned and refused. Peace was made in January, 1783; the independence of the United States was recognised. The French got little. **Senegal** and **Gorée**, on the west coast of Africa, were given to them, and they were allowed to keep the two little islands of **St. Pierre** and **Miquelon**, close to Newfoundland, but were forbidden to make fortifications or to keep soldiers there.¹

In America a number of the loyalists who had stood by England throughout the war refused to remain in their homes under the new government, or to exchange the "Union Jack" for the "Stars and Stripes." They crossed the frontier into Canada, and there settled. Their loyalty and devotion recall the beautiful words in which is told the story of Ruth—

"And Ruth said, 'Intreat me not to leave thee,
Or to return from following after thee;
For whither thou goest, I will go; and where thou lodgest,
I will lodge; thy people shall be my people, and thy God my God.'" ²

They were known as "*The United Empire Loyalists*," and their memory should always be held in honour and esteem by every true Briton. Their descendants in the Dominion are to this day justly proud of their descent from the "**United Empire Loyalists**" of 1776.

¹ These islands still belong to France; and their occupation by the French is a source of great annoyance and inconvenience to the people of Newfoundland.

² Ruth i. 16.

CHAPTER LXVIII.

THE ACT OF UNION WITH IRELAND.

Pitt and Fox.

"At this moment, there appeared before the country a young University student, rich with lofty eloquence, and heir to an immortal name; untainted in character, spotless in life; who showed the very first day that he met Parliament as Minister a supreme disdain for the material prizes of political life."—*Lord Rosebery: "Life of Pitt."*

IT was natural that the failure of Lord North's policy should put an end to his government. He was succeeded in 1782 by **Lord Rockingham**, a Whig; and in the same year Rockingham's place was taken by **Lord Shelburne**. The new Ministry lasted but a short time, but it must be remembered because it contained a very famous person. This was **William Pitt**, the son of the great Lord Chatham, who now, at the age of only twenty-three, became a Cabinet Minister and Chancellor of the Exchequer.

This young man was destined to become as famous, though less fortunate, than his father.

Frequent changes of Ministries took place, but two men soon took the lead before all others in the House of Commons. One was **Charles James Fox**, the great leader of the *Whig* Party; the other was **William Pitt**, who speedily became recognised as the chief of the *Tory* Party and the only man able to oppose Fox.

In 1783 **Fox** became the leader of the government, under the **Duke of Portland**, and so great was his power in the House of Commons that it seemed as if nothing could shake it. The king was no lover of Fox; but the Whigs, though they had not the support of the king, had the support of his son, the Prince of Wales. Pitt took the side of the king; and it soon became clear that the real feeling of the country was on the side of the king and Pitt, rather than on that of Fox and the Whigs. But while Fox had so many supporters in the House of Commons, he remained all-powerful.

It was not long, however, before he fell. He brought in a Bill

called the "*India Bill*," which was passed by the House of Commons. The king refused to accept the Bill, and persuaded the House of Lords to throw it out. He dismissed **Fox**, and made **Pitt** Prime Minister.

Then, indeed, there arose a strange state of things. A Prime Minister of twenty-four found himself in the House of Commons with a majority of almost two to one against him. Every measure Pitt proposed was defeated, and Fox used all his eloquence to make him and his Government ridiculous. But Pitt would not give way; he knew that the country was with him. Parliament was dissolved (1784), and 160 of Fox's supporters were turned out at the election. **Pitt** came back to office as Prime Minister with a large majority, and for seventeen years retained that high office.

Great Britain and Ireland.

"I sat by its cradle, I followed its hearse."

Henry Grattan : Speech on Grattan's Parliament.

We now come to two very important events, one of which chiefly concerned our country alone, while the other affected the whole of Europe, and, indeed, the whole of the world. The *first* event was the **Parliamentary union between Great Britain and Ireland**. The *second* was the great **Revolution in France**, which began in the year 1789. In guiding the country through all the dangers and difficulties which surrounded it in these stormy times, **William Pitt** took the foremost place.

In order to understand what happened in Ireland we must go back a little in our history, and recall what had taken place in that part of the Three Kingdoms. It must be remembered that, although after the Reformation the whole of England had become *Protestant*, by far the larger part of the people of Ireland had remained members of the *Roman Catholic Church*. There were, it is true, a considerable number of Protestants in Ireland, chiefly in the north, but the Roman Catholics formed the great majority.

Partly owing to their different form of religion, partly owing to English misgovernment, and partly to other causes, many of the Irish had always been ready to take part in any attack upon the English power in Ireland. Ever since the days of Elizabeth, and indeed from a much earlier date, the country had been disturbed by almost endless

civil wars, which had caused terrible suffering and had been conducted with great cruelty on both sides.

On several occasions foreign troops had landed in Ireland, and had found support in that country against England. More than once English armies had been despatched to Ireland, and after fierce fighting had put down rebellion. We have seen how in Cromwell's time such an event took place, and how once more, in the reign of

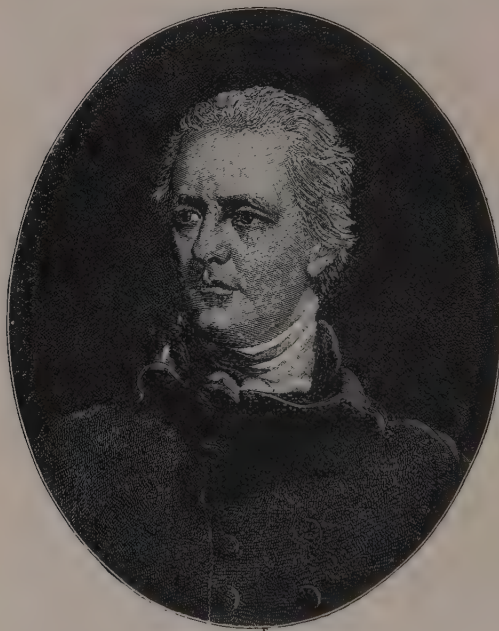
William III., the Irish, with their French allies, had fought for James II. and the Roman Catholic cause against William III.

After the battle of the Boyne and the flight of James, the Protestant cause had been triumphant, and the Roman Catholics who had so lately been in arms against the King were treated with great severity, and were kept down by special laws.

It was impossible that all this trouble should pass over the land and not leave behind it bitter memories and divisions which were hard to heal. Much

of the land of Ireland had been seized from time to time by either party in the hour of its triumph. The Protestants had been the last to win a victory, and had used it to turn out from their land those whom they considered rebels and enemies. Here was another cause of bitterness and strife.

Lastly, there was a political reason for Irish troubles which must not be forgotten. In the story of the reign of Henry VII. (p. 422) we



WILLIAM PITT.

(After the portrait by Hopfner.)

read an account of an Act of Parliament passed in the year 1494, and called "**Poynings' Act**" after Sir Edward Poynings, who was Governor of Ireland at the time. By this Act it was declared that whatever laws the Irish Parliament passed might be "*disallowed*" by the sovereign; and that if the sovereign refused consent, or disallowed a law, it ceased to have any effect, and no one was bound to obey it.

Now, as the king or queen was always advised by English Ministers, this really meant that, though Ireland had in name a "free" Parliament, the Irish Parliament could really make no laws except by the consent of the English Ministers.

For a long time there had been a party in Ireland who were very anxious to do away with Poynings' Act, and to free the Irish Parliament from the control of British Ministers; and in the year 1782, just after the close of the American war, when Fox was the most important member of the Government, the demand of this party had been granted and Poynings' Act repealed.

Grattan's Parliament and the Act of Union.

"The word 'Union' will not cure the evils of this wretched country; it is a necessary preliminary, but a great deal more remains to be done."
 —Lord Fitzwilliam to Pitt.

The leader of the party who sought for the repeal of Poynings' Act was **Henry Grattan**, a very famous and eloquent Irishman, who, however, was not content to urge his claim by eloquence only. He and his friends took the opportunity, when Great Britain was engaged in war all over the world, to enrol thousands of armed Irishmen, who were called "*Volunteers*." Whether because he thought it a wise thing to do, or because he feared the power of the Volunteers, or for both reasons together, Fox, as we have seen, agreed to give what Grattan asked for. Thus it was that in 1782 there sat for the first time in Dublin an *independent Irish Parliament*, of which Grattan was the most famous and most eloquent member. From him it has been called "**Grattan's Parliament**."

One strange thing must be remembered about this Parliament, and that is, that all the members of it were *Protestants*, and that no Roman Catholics were allowed to sit in it. Unfortunately, although Grattan had got what he desired, the new Parliament was not successful in giving to Ireland what she most required—namely, peace and prosperity.

On the contrary, disturbances soon broke out in every part of the island. The country, instead of becoming richer, became poorer; traitorous plots were made by **Wolfe Tone** and others, the object of which was to bring over the French and to betray to them the various strong places in the country.

The Roman Catholics united together to compel the Government



HENRY GRATTAN.

(After the painting by J. Ramsay.)

to repeal the laws which prevented them from serving as Grand Jurors, or Magistrates, from bearing arms, and from voting for Members of Parliament; and in 1793 an Act of Parliament called the "**Catholic Relief Act**" was passed, which gave them what they asked for.

But this was far from putting an end to the trouble. In 1795 an open rebellion broke out; and though at first both Roman Catholics and Protestants were joined together in the rebel ranks, the old sad quarrel between Protestants and Roman Catho-

lics soon broke out again and divided Ireland into two camps.

The rebels called in the *French* to their aid, and **General Hoche** with an army actually sailed and reached **Bantry Bay**, in the county of Cork. There, happily, his ships were dispersed by a storm, and **General Lake**, who was sent with troops from England, succeeded in checking the rebellion. But it only broke out again more fiercely in the south, and once more English troops had to be called in under **Lord Cornwallis** to restore peace. It was plain that, at a time when Great Britain was at war with half the world, so dangerous a state of things could not be

allowed to go on; and the danger became very pressing when the news arrived in August, 1798, that another French general, **General Humbert**, had actually landed with 800 men in the county of Mayo. Luckily, this small force was soon captured, but the peril was very great; and at last Pitt made up his mind that the time had come when the only safety for the State was to be found in treating Ireland as Scotland had been treated in 1707, and allowing her to send members to the Imperial Parliament in London, instead of keeping up a separate and independent Parliament in Dublin.

Accordingly, in the year 1799, Pitt felt that the time had come for putting an end to Grattan's Parliament. A Bill was brought into the Irish House of Commons for the purpose of creating a *Parliamentary Union* between Great Britain and Ireland, and a similar Bill was brought in and passed without difficulty in the British Parliament.

In Ireland, although the Bill was fiercely resisted by some, there was great difference of opinion as to whether the change ought to be made or not, and many petitions both for and against the Bill were sent up from all parts of the country. One strange difficulty had to be got over. At that time a seat in Parliament, both in England and in Ireland, was often looked upon as the property of some nobleman or rich person, who was said to "own the seat."

So common had the practice of buying and selling seats become that the rights of the owners had come to be admitted by all. Pitt, therefore, found it necessary, in order to get rid of the Parliament in Dublin, to pay very large sums of money to many of the members who called themselves *owners* of their seats. No less than a million and a quarter pounds were spent in this way. At last, however, the Bill was passed by a majority of forty-six, on February 18th, 1800. On August 2nd the Act, having passed the British Parliament, received the royal assent. It is known as the "**Act of Union**," and it provided that from that time forward the Protestant Parliament in Dublin should come to an end, and that Ireland, like Scotland, should send members straight to the **Imperial Parliament at Westminster**.



CHAPTER LXIX.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The Beginning of the Revolution.

"In general, may we not say that the French Revolution lies in the heart and head of every violent-speaking, of every violent-thinking French Man?"—Carlyle.

In giving an account of the Act of Union we have gone a little too far in advance in our story; for, long before the year 1800, great events had taken place both in England and abroad of which no mention has yet been made. For many years the government of France had been going from bad to worse. Exhausted by perpetual wars, the French people were prevented by cruel and unwise laws from making a proper use of the great natural riches of their country. The government was in the hands of the king and of a few nobles, who knew little, and cared less, about the sufferings of the poor.

Meanwhile there had arisen in France a number of very clever writers and speakers who saw the badness of the government, and the mischief which it did. These men set to work to preach to the people of France a new doctrine. They told them that, so far from it being right that kings and nobles should rule the people, the people ought to be free to rule themselves. They said it was a shame that a few should get rich while so many starved; that all men were really equal; and that everyone who set himself up above the people should be cast down from his high place. They pointed out that the foolish laws which had been made prevented the people from ever becoming prosperous or happy.

Many of the things which they said were true and wise; many were true but not wisely said; and some were neither true nor wise. But the burning words that were spoken and written, whether they were true or untrue, wise or unwise, were heard and read very eagerly by the starving and oppressed people of France, who were glad to be told that all their misfortunes came from their king and their government. And when men were in this mood, it was natural enough that they should think the time had come to get rid of the king and the government which they believed did them so much harm.

In the year 1789 began the great **French Revolution**, or rebellion of the French people against the government and the laws of France. The movement spread like wildfire through the country, and was especially strong in **Paris** and in one or two of the great towns. Everywhere men cried out for "*Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity.*" All men, they said, should be free and equal, and as brothers to one another.



THE BASTILLE, PARIS.

The great prison of the **Bastille** in Paris was attacked and destroyed; and messengers were sent out to every country in Europe to teach foreign nations the new and wonderful doctrine of "**Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity.**" Unluckily, however, these great changes were not to be made peaceably. The hatred of those who so long had felt themselves oppressed soon broke out against the nobles and the rich—"Aristocrats," as they were called. Terrible scenes of bloodshed took place in Paris. Thousands of the "Aristocrats" were forced to

emigrate from their country, and to take refuge in other lands. The king, **Louis XVI.**, himself was made a prisoner in his own palace; and, though he tried to escape, he and his queen, **Marie Antoinette**, were caught and brought back to Paris.

The Death of Louis XVI.

"Unhappy country! How is the fair gold-and-green of the ripe bright Year defaced with horrid blackness; black ashes of Chateaus, black bodies of gibbeted Men! Industry has ceased in it; not sounds of the hammer and the saw, but of the tocsin and alarm-drum. The sceptre has departed, whither one knows not."—*Carlyle*.

It was not long before what had taken place in France had its effect in England. Many of the rights which the French claimed had long ago been granted in England, and the "free" government of the country by Parliament had prevented the English people from becoming divided amongst themselves as the people had become in France. But, though in many ways England was better off than France, there were still great poverty and much suffering among the very poor, and there were many laws which were harsh and oppressive. And so, when it was known in England that the French people had risen in revolt with a cry of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity" upon their lips, there were thousands who rejoiced at what had been done, and there were many who were even ready to follow the example of the French, and to attack the laws and the government of their country.

It was not long, however, before the English people began to see that, though there might be a great deal of excuse for what the French revolutionists were doing, yet that what they did was most dangerous, and threatened before long to set not only France but all Europe in a blaze. For, not content with crying out for "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity," the leaders of the Revolution in Paris had begun to persecute all those who did not agree with them. The *guillotine*—an instrument used for beheading criminals in France—was set up in Paris, and scores of "Aristocrats" and others who were supposed to be enemies of the Revolution were seized and executed without trial. Massacres took place, and panic spread throughout the city. Louis XVI. had married Marie Antoinette, sister of the Emperor of Austria, and an Austrian army now marched into France to rescue the king and queen from the danger which threatened them.

Then was seen a wonderful sight. The leaders of the Revolution called upon all Frenchmen to come forward and fight against the Austrians. To the surprise of all Europe, the ill-clad, badly trained soldiers who marched into battle to the cry of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity," or singing the "*Marseillaise*"—the great song of the Revolution—proved more than a match for the veterans of Austria, and the invaders were defeated again and again.

Meanwhile the anger of the leaders against the king grew fiercer and fiercer. On the 17th of January, 1793, the **National Convention**, or Parliament of the Revolution, voted for the king's death; and on the 21st of January Louis XVI. was beheaded in the midst of a howling crowd in one of the public squares of Paris. On the 16th of October his beautiful queen followed him to the scaffold.

All Europe was shocked at these deeds; but the leaders of the Revolution, so far from being abashed, now decided to carry the war into the enemy's country. They declared that all nations which did not agree with the doctrines of the Revolution were enemies; that their governments must be destroyed; and that freedom after the French pattern must be given to their peoples. Armies were formed, and marched into Belgium and into the German Provinces across the Rhine.



LOUIS XVI.

(After a painting by Boze, 1785.)

Great Britain and the Revolution.—The British Navy.

"Thus much is certaine: That hee that Commands the SEA, is at great liberty, and may take as much, and as little of the Warre, as he will, Whereas those, that be strongest by land, are many times neverthelesse in great Straits. Surely, at this Day, with us of EUROPE, the Vantage of Strength at SEA (which is one of the Principall Dowries of this Kingdome of GREAT BRITTAINE) is Great; Both because, Most of the Kingdomes of EUROPE, are not meerely Inland, but girt with the SEA, most part of their Compasse; And because, the Wealth of both INDIES, seemes in great Part, but an Accessary, to the Command of the SEAS."—Bacon's Essay "On the Greatnesse of Kingdomes and Estates."

It was not wonderful that in Great Britain there soon came a change of feeling towards the Revolution; and many of those who had at first wished well to the leaders of the new party in France now began to look upon them with disgust and fear—disgust at their cruel and lawless doings, and fear of their threats of war and of their attempts to raise disturbances in other countries.

Pitt was one of the first to see that, though the French had begun by declaring that what they sought was to make all men equal and free, and to unite them in brotherly love, what they were actually doing could only lead to strife and bloodshed.

In England some of the most extreme friends of the Revolution tried to stir up the people to revolt. They said—what was true—that there was much misery in the land, and that many of the laws wanted altering; and they urged the English people to follow in the footsteps of the French in order to bring about the change. But Pitt, though he had always shown himself ready to make wise reforms and changes in the law, would never consent to allow lawlessness or violence. Severe laws were passed to put down the violent party whose best friends were in France. Many of these laws seem harsh and unwise to us now; but they were supported at the time by the great majority of the people of the United Kingdom, who saw the horrors which had taken place in France, and who felt that anything was better than a repetition of such horrors in their own country.

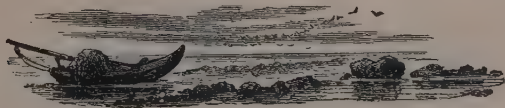
It was impossible that France should long carry on war in Europe without coming into conflict with British interests. Indeed, there can be little doubt that from the first it was the intention of the French to force a war upon Britain. It was not, however, till the year 1793—the year

in which King Louis was beheaded—that war was actually declared between England and France. From that day forward, for twenty-two years, the long struggle between England and France continued with but one short break. Not only England and France, indeed, but all the countries of Europe—and for a time also the United States of America—became engaged in the war.

It was a time of terrible danger and trial for this country. While other nations were defeated, and their territory overrun by the victorious armies of France, Britain alone held her own unharmed. Deserted by all her allies, she kept up what seemed at first a most unequal conflict unaided; and at last, when the tide of battle turned, and Britain and the Continental nations succeeded in driving back the French armies to their own country, it was Great Britain who was looked upon by all as the first and the greatest among the allies.

To two causes, above all others, was the success of our country due. In the first place, as compared with other European countries, we had a really *free and popular government*; and the whole power of the nation supported Parliament and the king's Ministers even in the stormiest times.

In the second place, we entered on the war with a powerful and well-trained *Navy*. Every year saw an increase in the strength of that Navy, and in the perfection of its training. For ten years running, nineteen million pounds a year was spent on the Navy alone; and the sacrifices of the country were not without their reward. Our fleets, under their great commanders, **St. Vincent**, **Nelson**, **Collingwood**, and many another gallant seaman, swept the seas. While France was master of half Europe, her dominion never extended beyond low-water mark. Britain was mistress of the sea; her shores were safe from attack; and the growth of her commerce upon the waters brought riches to her people, while to other nations the war brought nothing but misery and ruin.



CHAPTER LXX.

THE GREAT WAR WITH FRANCE.

PART I.

Napoleon Buonaparte.

"Some, what is more to the purpose, bethink them of the Citizen Buonaparte, unemployed Artillery-Officer, who took Toulon."—Carlyle.

It is impossible to tell here the whole story of the long war which now desolated Europe. **England** took the side of **Austria**, and Pitt sent large sums of money to the Austrian Government. Unluckily, the Austrian armies, though they have always shown the most heroic bravery, have seldom been fortunate in war, and our allies suffered defeat in more than one battle.

For a time, however, the fortunes of war appeared to be equally divided, and there seemed reason to hope that France, exhausted by the war and weakened by troubles at home, would be compelled to make peace. But all these hopes were destined to be disappointed. In the year 1795 the friends of the Revolution were still masters of France, and, though the most violent and cruel of the leaders had lost their lives in the struggle, the heads of the government of the French Republic still preached the old doctrine of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity." They were far from guessing how soon they would throw all their fine ideas to the winds, and how soon they would give up their cry of "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity" for that of "Long live the Emperor!"

It was in the year 1795 that a quarrel broke out between the two parties which were fighting for power in Paris. Among the chief men on one side was **Barras**. Barras made up his mind that, in order to protect himself and his friends, the soldiers must be called in, and that if necessary they must be compelled to fire upon anyone who opposed them. He looked about for a man on whom he could rely to lead the soldiers. He found him. The man he found was a young Colonel of Artillery, only twenty-six years old. He was a Corsican who had

already distinguished himself in fighting against the English at Toulon. His name was **Napoleon Buonaparte**.

Buonaparte did all that he was ordered, and more than all. The troops under his command fired without hesitation upon the people. The party of Barras were masters of Paris. But Barras and his friends had found their master also. The young soldier soon became the most famous and most popular man in Paris. He was made a general, and in the year 1796 was ordered to take command of the French army sent to fight the Austrians in Italy.

From that day forward the name of Napoleon Buonaparte became familiar in every country in Europe. This is not the place to write the story of this wonderful man; but that he was one of the most wonderful men that ever lived is beyond dispute. We may admire him, as many people did; we may hate him, as many people also did; but no one can read the



NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE, FIRST CONSUL.
(From a drawing by L. David.)

history of his life without feeling that he was one of the most extraordinary men of whom history has given us an account, and that whatever he did, good or bad, showed him to be a man of wonderful power and gifted with a wonderful mind.

Now we must leave France and come back to England, and see how she fared. At first she fared but ill; and, had it not been for the success of her fleets, we should have nothing but disaster to record. Fortunately, even at this early date the British fleets showed their

superiority. Lord Howe entirely defeated a French fleet off **Ushant** on the 1st of June, 1794, and the battle has become ever memorable in our naval history as "**The Glorious First of June.**" In the following year our failures in Europe were made up for by some very important successes elsewhere. The *Dutch* had been compelled to take sides with the French, and to declare war against England. They soon suffered for doing so, for British expeditions promptly took possession of the island of **Ceylon**, the **Cape of Good Hope**, and **Demerara**, or **British Guiana**, in South America, all of which are at the present time parts of the British Empire.

Meanwhile Buonaparte had led the French armies to victory in Italy; and had not only beaten the *Austrians* but had compelled the *Spaniards*, as well as the *Dutch*, to take the side of France. He was determined that, if the French fleet were not strong enough alone, he would add to it other fleets which would enable him to crush Great Britain. Preparations were actually made in the Dutch ports for an invasion of England; but another great victory at sea once more saved the country. Sir John Jervis fell in with the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west corner of Spain, and totally defeated it (1797).

It was in this battle that **Captain Horatio Nelson** displayed a skill and courage which made his name famous through the United Kingdom. In his ship the *Captain* he succeeded in cutting off the retreat of the *Spaniards*; two of their ships, the *San Nicholas* and *San Josef*, though they had received a hard pounding from Nelson's friend, Captain Trowbridge, of the *Excellent*, would have escaped had not Nelson boldly laid his ship alongside the nearest Spanish vessel, and taken possession of her at the head of a party of boarders. From the first ship he and his men clambered over to the second, which in turn surrendered to him. The story is told of how Nelson, standing on the deck of one of the captured ships, received the swords of the Spanish officers, and as he received them handed them on to his old coxswain, William Fearney; Fearney, in the most matter-of-fact way, tucked the swords under his arm, until he had quite a bundle of them. A well-known picture commemorates the incident.



The Mutiny of the Fleet.

"At this juncture, our one efficient arm, to which alone the nation could look for solace and even protection, was paralysed by insubordination; the flag of lawlessness had been hoisted, and the guns of the Navy were pointed at British shores."—*Lord Rosebery: "Life of Pitt."*

The year 1797 is a very dark one in our history, for it seemed as if the one great safeguard of the nation—our fleet—were about to fail us in the hour of danger. The treatment of the seamen had long been very bad; their pay often did not reach the men, though the money had been voted by Parliament. Many small acts of injustice were justly complained of by the sailors, and among their officers there were some who had made themselves hated by their severity. In this year (1797) the discontent in the fleet came to a head. The crews of the ships at **Spithead** mutinied, and refused to obey their officers. At the same time the seamen, true to their habits of discipline and obedience, kept order on their own ships, and stated their grievances respectfully. By the wise action of **Lord Howe**, and by fair concessions, the mutiny was put an end to, and the men were induced to return to their duties.

But a much more serious mutiny broke out among the ships at the **Nore**, where the movement was headed by a seaman of the name of **Parker**. The ships were actually drawn across the mouth of the Thames so as to blockade London, and the government was forced to build forts and to place guns along the banks of the river for the purpose of sinking the mutinous ships if they refused to surrender. The panic in London—and, indeed, throughout the country—was great, as well it might be. The Funds fell to 46, and an Act of Parliament was passed allowing the Bank of England to make payment in paper money instead of in gold, so great had been the cost of the war and so scarce was the money required to pay for it.

Happily, however, the danger soon passed away. The mutineers at the **Nore**, frightened by the firmness of the government, and knowing that their countrymen disapproved of their violence, returned to their duties. Parker and one or two other ringleaders were taken and hanged. It was time that the fleet should be ready for action. Already a Dutch fleet was assembled in the River Texel under the orders of the French government, and was ready to sail out any moment. **Admiral Duncan** was blockading it with his squadron, when, to his despair, the

whole of his ships, with the exception of his own flagship and two frigates, sailed away to join the mutineers at the Nore.

What was to be done? The only hope was to deceive the enemy, and this the Admiral succeeded in doing. All day long he made signals from his ship as if the rest of his fleet were out of sight to seaward. So the Dutch thought; and it was not till after the mutiny was over, and the British men-of-war had returned, that they at last ventured to sea. A fierce action took place off **Camperdown** (1797). The Dutch, always most stubborn fighters, showed themselves worthy of their old renown, but the victory remained with the British. Eleven Dutch ships were captured, and Duncan justly earned the title "**Viscount Duncan**."

"The Nile," and the Defence of Acre.

"To Sir Sidney Smith now fell the distinguished duty of meeting and stopping the greatest general of modern times."—Captain Mahan, *United States Navy*: "*Influence of Sea Power*."

But, in these stormy days, if war ceased in one part of the world it was sure to be going on in another. In 1798 Buonaparte sailed with a French army for **Egypt**. The great French general hoped that by conquering Egypt he might open the way to **India**, and thus win for France the empire of the East. The French army was safely landed, and soon made itself master of Egypt. But the fleet which had brought it was destined never to return to France. On the 1st of August Admiral Nelson discovered the French fleet drawn up in line at anchor in the **Bay of Aboukir**, close to one of the mouths of the River Nile. There was but scanty room between the French ships and the land—too little room, the French admiral thought, to allow another fleet to pass inside him without running aground.

Not so thought Lord Nelson. A ship which is at anchor swings with every change of wind and tide. "Where a ship can swing," said Nelson, "another ship can float," and he boldly led his squadron inside the French line. One ship, the *Culloden*, went ashore, but with the rest he fiercely engaged the enemy. The battle lasted through the night. The French flagship caught fire and blew up. In the morning the victory was complete. Out of seventeen ships the French had lost thirteen—taken, burnt, or sunk. Two ships of the line and two frigates alone escaped, and of these four ships three were afterwards taken. Never was victory more complete.



MUTINEERS THREATENING THEIR OFFICERS.

But though the French army could not return to France, it was still all-powerful in Egypt, and Buonaparte himself undertook to lead it northward on the road to further triumphs, either at Constantinople or on the way to India. Once again, however, the British Navy placed an obstacle in his path. The town of **Acre** lay on the line of march. It was ill-fortified, and defended by a weak Turkish garrison. Luckily, the garrison included a British Naval Officer, Captain **Sir Sidney Smith**, who was the life and soul of the defence. Again and again did the French Grenadiers throw themselves upon the walls; again and again were they driven back by the brave garrison. At last relief came by sea, the French were forced to raise the siege and to retreat, and Buonaparte was compelled to give up all hopes of Eastern conquest.

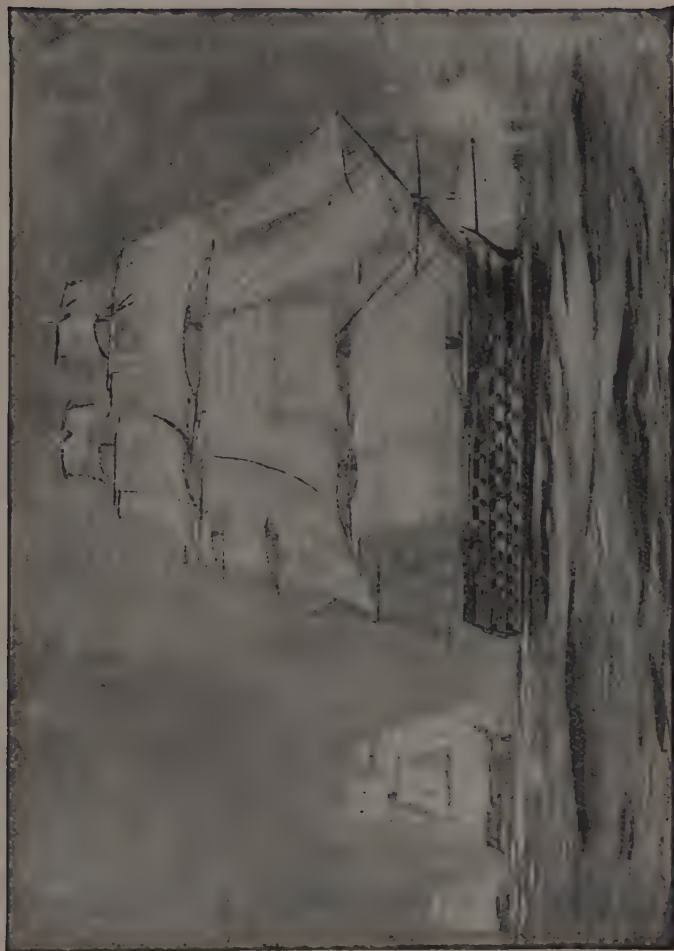
But this great man only passed from defeat to greater victories. Despairing of success in Egypt, he returned to France, succeeding, almost by a miracle, in escaping from the British cruisers in the Mediterranean. Once back in France, he soon became undisputed master of the power and resources of that country. In 1799 he was made head of the French Government, under the name of "**First Consul**," and for fifteen years to come he remained absolute master of France.

"Armed Neutrality."—The Battle of Copenhagen and Peace of Amiens.

"The Royal Navy of England hath ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural strength—the floating bulwark of our Island."—*Blackstone's Commentaries.*

England soon found, to her cost, that a strong Government had been set up in France. In Italy, the French under Buonaparte defeated the Austrians at the great battle of **Marengo**. Another Austrian army was routed by the French, under **General Moreau**, at **Hohenlinden**, in Bavaria. Austria could hold out no longer, and was compelled to make peace. **Russia** had up to this time remained friendly to England, but now Buonaparte succeeded in persuading **Paul**, the Russian Emperor, to take sides against England.

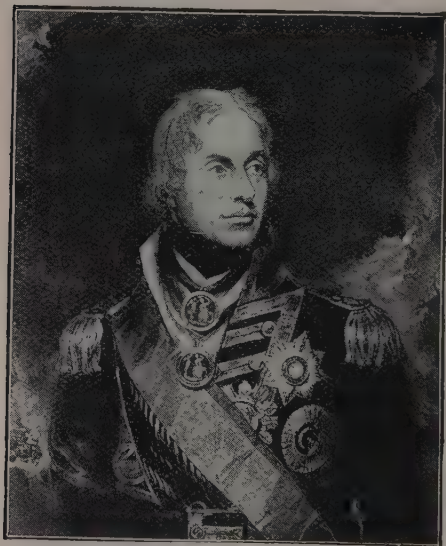
Soon the Northern Powers—**Russia**, **Sweden**, and **Denmark**—were compelled to join with France in refusing to allow British vessels to carry cargoes into their ports. This agreement, known as the "Armed



THREE-DECKERS GOING INTO ACTION.

Neutrality," at first caused great loss and suffering in our country. The price of corn rose to 120s. a quarter, and the greatest distress prevailed. Had it not been for the strength of the Navy, Buonaparte would have been able by this plan to crush England without a battle. We shall see, however, that the plan failed.

At the time, the British Government answered Buonaparte by giving orders to our Naval officers to seize cargoes carried in any of the ships going to or from the ports of France or her allies.



ADMIRAL LORD NELSON.

(From the painting by Sir William Beechey, R.A.)

All this time **Pitt** had remained Prime Minister, striving hard to save the country from the dangers by which it was surrounded. His work was hard enough, for the friends on whom he had to depend were, many of them, weak and untrustworthy persons; while **Fox**, the great and eloquent leader of the Whig party, though he was unable to overthrow Pitt or to deprive him of the support of the people, continually attacked him in great speeches in Parliament, and on more than one occasion went so far as to express his pleasure

at the defeat of the British arms and the success of the enemies of his own country—a shameful thing for which all Fox's great eloquence and ability can never atone.

At last, in the year 1801, the quarrels among his supporters became so bitter that Pitt was actually forced to give up office; and a weak and unwise man named **Addington**¹ for a time became Prime Minister.

But, whatever changes took place at home, the war went on abroad. Buonaparte, who was always anxious to strengthen his fleet, ordered the Danes to place their ships under his orders. Had this order been

¹ Afterwards Viscount Sidmouth.

carried out, the danger for England would have been a serious one; for the Danes had good ships and excellent sailors. A British fleet was promptly sent to the Baltic. **Sir Hyde Parker** was in command; under him was **Admiral Nelson**. The fleet passed the Sound and reached **Copenhagen**. The Danes were summoned to give up their ships, and a fierce battle at once began. Nelson commanded the attack. The story is told that Admiral Parker, thinking that the fighting was too fierce and the danger too great, wished to recall Nelson, and that Nelson, who had previously lost an eye (as well as an arm) in battle, put up his telescope to his blind eye, and, declaring that he could not see the signal which permitted him to withdraw, gave the order for closer battle.

The Danes fought with the greatest bravery, and the British suffered heavy losses, but the victory was decisive, and the power of Denmark to injure us was for a time destroyed. Nor was this all; for the presence of Nelson and his victorious fleet in the Baltic was sufficient to prevent the Russian and Swedish ships joining the French. In the same year the **Emperor Paul** of Russia was murdered, and his successor, **Alexander I.**, at once made peace with Great Britain. At the close of the same year arrangements were made for a general peace, and the news was hailed with rejoicing through the country, for all men were tired of the war, and many believed that Buonaparte was as sincere in wishing for peace as they were.

Pitt, however, was not one of those who believed that peace would last, or that Buonaparte could be trusted. He, however, consented to the terms which were at length arranged at **Amiens** on the 27th of March, 1802.

War Again.

"Saying, Peace, peace; when there is no peace."—Jeremiah vi. 14.

The **Peace of Amiens** was not a favourable one to Britain. Under its terms, Addington agreed to give up all the conquests which had been made in the war except the islands of **Ceylon** and **Trinidad**. The island of **Malta**, which had fallen into our hands, was to be surrendered. It was soon clear, however, that peace was not likely to last very long, and that those who distrusted Buonaparte had reason on their side.

The First Consul, free from attacks by England, set himself to work to make treaties and arrangements in Europe, all of which were

intended to make him stronger before war broke out again. Officers were sent to all the British possessions with orders to report how they could best be taken and made of use to France. In fact, it was clear that, as far as Buonaparte was concerned, the peace was only to be a time of preparation for a second and more successful war. Seeing that the French did not keep to their promises, the British Government refused to give up Malta.

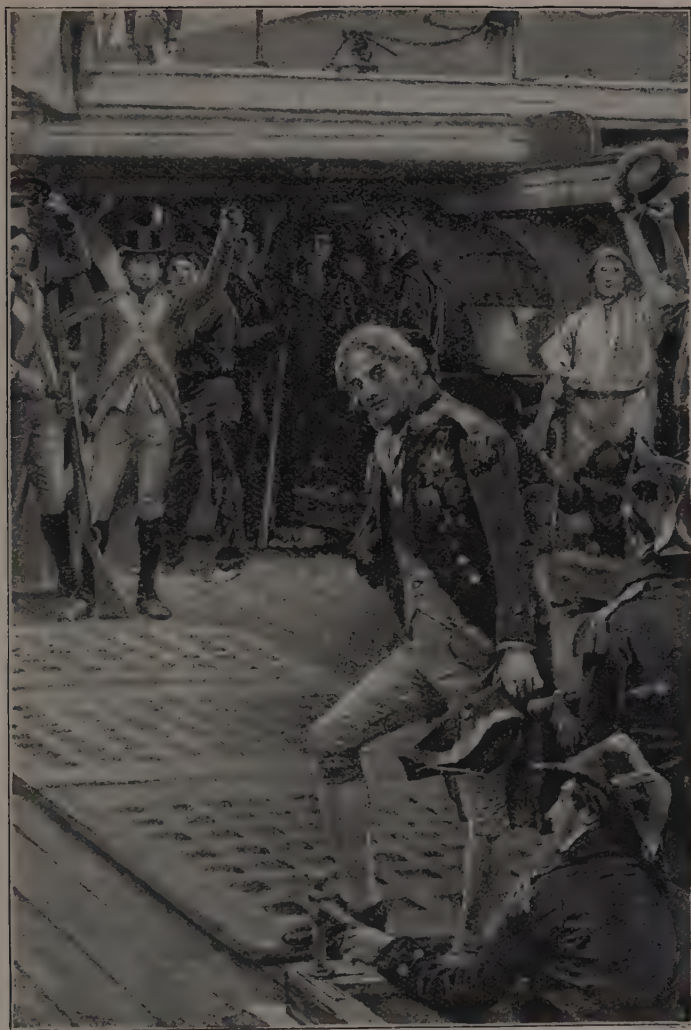
Matters soon went from bad to worse. At last Buonaparte openly insulted Lord Whitworth, the British Ambassador at Paris. It was no longer possible to keep up the pretence that the two nations were at peace, and in 1803, but one year after the Treaty of Amiens had been signed, war broke out again. The feeling between England and France was more bitter than ever, for Buonaparte actually went so far as to seize all the English who happened to be in France and throw them into prison. Such a thing had never been done before by the ruler of any nation. No wonder that the British people became angry, and resolved that they would fight out the battle, whatever it cost them.

But, in fighting out the battle, this country was at first at a great disadvantage; for **Addington**, who was still Prime Minister, was a man whom nobody trusted; and when at last a French army was actually assembling at Boulogne for the purpose of invading England, all men thought that the time had come when **Pitt** ought once more to become head of the Government. This feeling soon became so strong that, at length, Addington resigned his office in May, 1804, and Pitt, for the last time, became Prime Minister. In the same year Buonaparte took the title of *Emperor*, and reigned thenceforth as an absolute sovereign.

Boulogne—Trafalgar.

"The enemy have learnt to fight better than they ever did; and I hope it is not injustice to the Second in Command (Admiral Collingwood), who is now on board the 'Euryalus,' and who fought like a hero, to say that the Fleet under any other never would have performed what they did under Lord N., but under Lord N. it seemed like inspiration to most of them. To give you an idea of the man, and the sort of heart he had, the last signal he made was such a one as would immortalise any man."—Captain Blackwood (H.M.S. "Euryalus") to his wife, October 22nd, 1805.

It was indeed time that a strong hand should be at the helm. **Buonaparte** had made up his mind that Britain should, once for all, be crushed. He formed a great camp at **Boulogne**, and there tens of



NELSON COMING ON DECK BEFORE THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR,

thousands of French soldiers were collected for the invasion of England. Hundreds of boats were got together, and every day the soldiers were practised in embarking and disembarking. Proclamations were actually printed in English, dated from London. In these the people of Great Britain were told that the French had come to deliver them from the tyranny of their Government, and to bestow upon them all the benefits of the great French Revolution. These proclamations were to be distributed as soon as the French army got to London.

There is a story of a British Admiral who was present when the question of an invasion by the French was being talked about. He was asked what he thought. "Well," said he, "I do not know how they will come; for my part, all I can say is that they shall not come by water." This was just the difficulty which beset Napoleon Buona-parté. Everything was ready for an invasion of England except that the invading army was on the wrong side of the Channel, and on the sea was the British fleet.

Buonaparte knew well that his only hope was either to destroy the British fleet or to get it out of the way for a time. One French fleet was at **Brest**, a harbour on the north-west coast of France; another was in the harbour of **Toulon**, in the south-east, and had been watched there by Admiral Nelson for many a long month. Buonaparte ordered the Toulon fleet to go to sea at any cost. His plan was that it should lead Nelson to pursue it, should give him the slip, and should return, pick up the ships at Brest, and, thus strengthened, sail on to Boulogne in full strength, and protect the invading army.

The plan very nearly succeeded. The French fleet actually escaped from Toulon; Nelson went after it, and, though he followed it to the West Indies, failed to catch it. He returned in hot haste, almost heartbroken to think that in the meantime the invasion might have taken place. Luckily, however, this misfortune did not overtake our country. **Sir Robert Calder**, with an ill-equipped, badly-manned fleet, fell in with the returning Toulon ships in the Bay of Biscay. Calder defeated the enemy, and took two ships. The rest took refuge in the harbour at Cadiz.¹

Buonaparte waited anxiously for the coming of his fleet, but it never came. On the 21st of October, 1805, the British fleet, consisting of twenty-seven ships of the line, under the command of Lord Nelson, fell in with the combined French and Spanish fleets, numbering thirty-

¹ Nothing showed more clearly how much English people had come to expect from the Navy at this time than the fact that Admiral Calder, instead of being rewarded for having saved the country and taken two ships, was actually tried by court-martial and "*severely reprimanded*" for not having destroyed the French fleet.



THE DEATH OF NELSON IN THE COCKPIT OF THE VICTORY.

(From the picture by A. W. Davis.)

three ships, under the command of Admirals **Villeneuve** and **Gravina**, off **Cape Trafalgar**, in the south-west corner of Spain.

As the ships went into action, Nelson hoisted on his flag-ship, the "**Victory**," the famous signal, "*England expects every man will do his duty.*" Every man did his duty, and ere night fell nearly the whole of the enemy's fleet had been taken or destroyed. **Nelson**, struck down by a bullet fired from the mast-head of the French ship *Redoubtable*, died in the hour of victory, but he lived long enough to learn that the battle was won.

The great Admiral was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral mourned by the entire nation. The news of the great and final victory of Trafalgar itself seemed hardly to compensate for the loss of the heroic chief who had so often swept the enemies of his country from the sea, and preserved the shores of Britain from the foot of the invader.

But, happily, the great work which Nelson had set himself to accomplish was done when night fell upon the shattered remnants of the combined French and Spanish fleets. The power of France upon the sea had been finally broken, the fear of invasion was removed, and the way was now open for Britain to make her power felt upon the land, certain that the sea would always be open for the conveyance of her troops and the conduct of her commerce.

The figure of Nelson is a great and striking one, and beyond doubt he was the first among the many distinguished seamen who fought with him and under him. But, while giving honour, as is due, to the great Admiral himself, we must not forget the names of **St. Vincent** and of **Collingwood**—from the one of whom he learnt, and with the latter of whom he worked in friendly rivalry. We must remember the "Band of Brothers," as Nelson himself called them—the captains who commanded our battered ships through the long weary months of blockading, and in the day of battle—**Hardy**, **Trowbridge**, **Ball**, and many another—all these are entitled to be remembered as men who made our Navy fit to bear the tremendous burden that was laid upon it; and who taught us the lesson that a powerful, well-trained, and numerous Navy is the only real protection for our shores and for the commerce on which we depend.



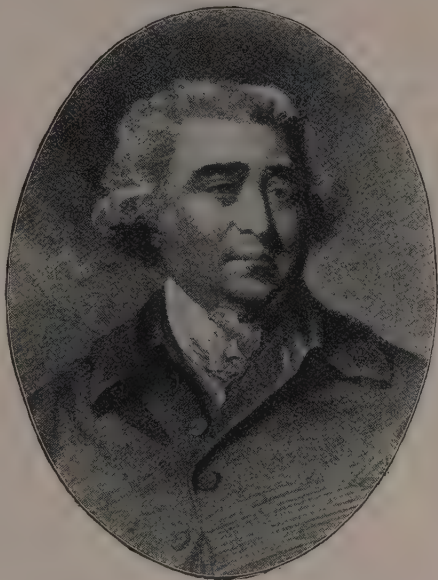
Austerlitz.—Fox in Office.

"He has faults; but they are faults that, though they may in a small degree tarnish the lustre, and sometimes impede the march, of his abilities, have nothing in them to extinguish the fire of great virtue."—Edmund Burke's description of Charles James Fox.

The danger of invasion vanished with the victory of Trafalgar; and no one knew this better than Buonaparte himself. Even before the battle was fought he knew that Villeneuve had failed him, and his great mind turned immediately towards conquest elsewhere. The army which had been assembled for the overthrow of Britain suddenly received orders to turn its back upon the sea and to march away towards the south-east.

Almost before the world was aware that the camp before Boulogne had been broken up, French armies had advanced into the heart of Austria. On the 19th of October, two days before the battle of Trafalgar, an Austrian army of 40,000 men was compelled to lay down its arms and surrender at **Ulm**, in Bavaria. A month later the French entered **Vienna**; and on the 2nd of December, in the same year, the Austrian army was defeated and almost destroyed at the great battle of **Austerlitz**.

Britain indeed had been saved by her Navy, but her allies had



CHARLES JAMES FOX.

(After the portrait by Sir Joshua Reynolds.)

suffered terrible defeats, and her great enemy, Napoleon Buonaparte, everywhere victorious on land, was master of Europe. It was at this unhappy time, when all his efforts to support and strengthen the allies of England seemed to have failed, that **Pitt** died. Already in ill-health, it is said that the news of Ulm and Austerlitz hastened his death (January 23rd, 1806). He left no statesman equally great to take his place; and, though he had not always been fortunate in his undertakings, Britain recognised in him a man who, in all trials and under all difficulties, had but one great idea before him—that of serving his country to the best of his ability. William Pitt was in his forty-seventh year when he died, and had been twenty-one years a member of the Government.

On the death of Pitt, his great rival, **Fox**, took office as Foreign Secretary. **Lord Grenville** became Prime Minister, but Fox was the real head of the Government. For many years Fox had been Pitt's chief opponent in the House of Commons. He had made speeches, marked by the most wonderful eloquence, in which he condemned all that Pitt did, and, above all, condemned the war which Pitt was trying to carry on with success. Now, however, that Fox, after many years of waiting, had succeeded in obtaining Pitt's place as the chief member of a Government, he was very far from following the advice which he himself had so often given. He did not put an end to the war or make peace with Buonaparte; for, indeed, it was clear to all the world that, whatever he might profess, Buonaparte really aimed at nothing less than the conquest of the whole Continent, to be followed by the conquest of Britain.

Unluckily, although Fox agreed to carry on the war, the measures which he took were not successful, nor, indeed did he live long enough to see his own plans carried out. He died in the month of September, 1806, only eight months after his rival Pitt. The tombs of these two great men are seen close together in Westminster Abbey:

"The mighty chiefs sleep side by side.
Drop upon Fox's grave a tear,
'Twill trickle to his rival's bier;
O'er Pitt's the mournful requiem sound,
And Fox's shall the notes rebound.
The solemn echo seems to cry—
'Here let their discord with them die.'"

Scott.



CHAPTER LXXI.

THE GREAT WAR WITH FRANCE.

PART II.

Buonaparte Master of Europe—Jena—Eylau.

*" . . . —they rose, a nation true,
True to itself—the mighty Germany,
She of the Danube and the Northern Sea,
She rose—and off at once the yoke she threw."*

Wordsworth: "A Prophecy, 1807."

ENGLAND, alas! was now poorer by the loss of three great men, and she could ill afford to lose great men at a time when so many dangers beset her. **Nelson**, **Pitt**, and **Fox** had all passed away within a few months of one another. Luckily for England, though much was lost, much yet remained to her. The victory of Trafalgar had made her undisputed mistress of the seas. Although there were much suffering and poverty in the country, still, there had been a steady growth in wealth and prosperity. No enemy had gained a footing on her shores, and the spirit of the people was as firm as ever in its determination to fight out the struggle with France to its bitter end. And, lastly, it became clear that, though some great Englishmen had passed away, there were others ready and able to take their places. It was not long before the name of one of the greatest of these began to be known—first, in England, and then throughout Europe. It was the name of **Arthur Wellesley**.

The Ministry which **Fox** had formed lasted only a few months after his death; and in 1807 a new Ministry was formed, of which the head was the **Duke of Portland**, but of which **Lord Castlereagh** and **Canning** were the principal members. It was their duty to carry on the war with France, but they soon found themselves threatened by a new move on the part of Buonaparte.

It seemed as if that great man, not content with defeating the Austrians, were determined to make all Europe either his allies or his slaves. In 1806 France picked a quarrel with **Prussia**. The Prussian

army was no longer what it had been under Frederick the Great. The French gained a complete victory. The Prussian armies were almost destroyed at the two battles of **Jena** and **Auerstadt**. **Prussia**, men thought, had been for ever blotted out of the list of great nations.

But, with nations as with men, it often happens that a time of trial and suffering is the beginning of a new and better life. From the very day of the defeat at **Jena** the new life of **Prussia** began. Shame and sorrow weighed down the mind of every Prussian who loved his country; but the best men in **Prussia** were not content with sorrowing over their misfortunes: they determined that they would do all in their power to free their country and to make it once more great and independent. Little by little, step by step, they did their work. They taught their countrymen that the one great thought of their lives ought to be the freedom of their country and the defeat of those who had invaded it. They taught them, too, that only by patient self-denial, by practice and never-ending trouble, could they hope to make a Prussian army strong enough to drive out the French conquerors. We shall see how, in time, the work of these brave and wise Prussians was rewarded, and how at length **Prussia** not only drove the invaders out, but how her soldiers carried her flag into the city of **Paris** itself.

But for the time things looked very dark. **Berlin**, the capital of **Prussia**, was occupied by the French, and French garrisons were placed in all the Prussian fortresses. The Emperor of **Russia**, alarmed at the sudden defeat of the King of **Prussia**, sent an army to his aid, but the Russians were defeated at the terrible battle of **Eylau**, in 1807; and in the same year the nations of Europe were terrified to hear that a treaty of peace and alliance had been made between the Emperor of the French and the Emperor of **Russia** at the little town of **Tilsit**, on the River **Niemen**.

Neither Emperor would admit that he was the inferior in rank or dignity to the other. Neither would consent to visit the territory of the other even for the purpose of signing the treaty. It was, therefore, arranged that the two Sovereigns should meet upon a raft anchored in the middle of the River **Niemen**. In this way the pride of both sides was satisfied. The two Emperors were recognised as equal, and it seemed as if the rest of Europe had only to submit to whatever terms **France** and **Russia** might impose upon it.





THE TREATY OF TILSIT.

Wellesley in India—"The Continental System."

"Great as was the power of Napoleon, it ceased, like that of certain wizards, when it reached the water. Enemies and neutrals alike bowed to his invincible armies and his superb genius when he could reach them by land; but beyond the water there was one enemy, Great Britain, and one neutral, America,¹ whom he could not directly touch."—Captain Mahan, *United States Navy* ("Influence of Sea Power").

But already causes were at work which were in the end to bring about the downfall of the great French Empire which now seemed so strong and so secure. One Power still remained unconquered and unconquerable, and that Power was *Britain*.

While France extended her boundaries in Europe, Britain added to her Empire over the seas. Ever since the days of Clive the power of Britain in **India** had been growing, and in the years between 1802 and 1806—those years in which the Austrians had been beaten at Austerlitz and the Prussians at Jena—British troops had been winning victories over native armies aided by French officers in India.

In September, 1803, was won the battle of **Assaye**, in which 4,500 troops in the British employ routed an army of 30,000 men under the native Prince of Scindia. The victorious British General was **Arthur Wellesley**, whose name was soon to become famous in history as **Arthur, Duke of Wellington**.

In the same year **General Lake** won the victories of **Alighur** and **Laswaree**, and captured the cities of **Delhi** and **Agra**. Once more all the attempts on the part of France to oppose us in India were defeated, and the power of Britain was established more firmly than ever in the Peninsula. It has been said that *The gate of India* is the **Cape of Good Hope**. The Cape of Good Hope, as we know, had been taken once by England (1795), but had been given up again at the Peace of Amiens (1802). In 1806 it was captured a second time, and from that day forward has been one of the most important parts of the British Empire. Three years earlier the British flag was planted in yet another quarter of the globe, and the colony of **British Guiana**, in the north-eastern corner of South America, was captured from the Dutch.

Buonaparte, who had hoped to secure for France so many of the British possessions, now saw with disgust that those possessions were

¹ Meaning "The United States" of America.

increasing in number and strength. He had learnt that he could not destroy the naval power of Britain upon the sea; he now bethought him of a plan by which he hoped that he might destroy it from the land.

In November, 1806, "*The Berlin Decree*" was issued by Buonaparte declaring the British Islands to be blockaded, all commerce and



CAPE TOWN.

correspondence with Great Britain were forbidden, Englishmen found in France were to be made prisoners of war, and their property seized, all British manufactures and the produce of British colonies were to be confiscated, and British vessels, or those coming from any British port, were to be refused admission to any French harbour.

In the following year (1807) a still further step in the same direction was taken. By the "*Milan Decree*"¹ it was declared that any ship of whatever nation, which, after touching at any British port, landed its cargo at any European port might be *seized*, and its cargo taken by the Government. In order to make this plan work, it was necessary that every port in Europe should be closed against our ships, and an agreement between France and Russia was arrived at by which it was hoped

¹ The *Milan Decree* is so called because it was written from Milan, in Italy.

that this purpose would be accomplished. The system which was set up under this agreement became known as "*The Continental System.*"

It was hoped that by these means the enormous trade which was carried on by British ships, or by foreign ships sailing from British ports would be put an end to. But, unluckily for Buonaparte and his hopes, the ships which were at sea carried vast quantities of merchandise which the people of Europe were most anxious to have, and could ill do without. The whole of what was called the "colonial trade"—the trade in sugar, spices, rum, silks, and, indeed, the whole of the products of distant lands—could only enter Europe by sea. If they came from ports which were friendly to France, the chances were ten to one that the ships would be seized by the ever-watchful British cruisers. If they came in British ships or in ships which sailed from British ports, they were seized by the French officials, and thus, either way, the unhappy people who wanted the goods were the losers.

The suffering on the Continent soon became very great, and all sorts of tricks were tried to evade the decree. In the city of Hamburg brown sugar was actually carted out and laid down in the streets under the pretence that it was sand; in this way the watchfulness of the Custom House officers was evaded, and the sugar was afterwards gathered up in the streets and applied to its proper purposes.

It soon became clear that, though Buonaparte had succeeded in injuring his enemies a good deal, he had injured his own people and those whom he had forced to be his allies a great deal more. Nothing made the French Government more hated throughout Europe than the suffering which arose out of the "*Continental System.*"

Again it was proved that if Britain could only keep command of the sea she was safe. For a moment it seemed as if her power at sea were again to be threatened, for news reached England that Buonaparte was about to seize the fleet of Denmark, which had been strengthened since the first battle off Copenhagen. A second time a British fleet was sent to the Danish capital. The Danes were ordered to give up their ships. Like brave men, they refused. The city was bombarded (1807), and the fleet was taken and brought to England. Once more the threat against our power at sea had failed.



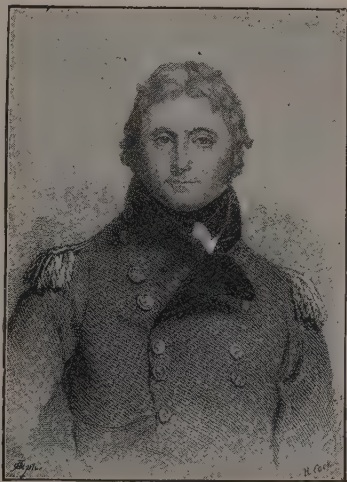
War on Land—The Peninsula—Failure.

*"We buried him darkly—at dead of night,
The sods with our bayonets turning;
By the struggling moonbeam's misty light,
And the lantern dimly burning.*

*"No useless coffin enclosed his breast,
Nor in sheet nor in shroud we wound him;
But he lay like a warrior taking his rest,
With his martial cloak around him."
C. Wolfe: "Burial of Sir John Moore."*

Now that at last all fear of attack upon the shores of Britain was removed, the British Government felt that the time had come to carry on the war by land as well as by sea, and for that purpose troops were sent to Spain and to Portugal. Thus began the famous "**Peninsular War**," in which British troops proved themselves as brave and as capable of winning victory on land as our sailors had already proved themselves to be at sea. The Spanish Peninsula was then, as now, divided into two kingdoms; **Spain**, the larger of the two, was already under the power of Buonaparte. The little kingdom of **Portugal** still held out, and refused to obey the Emperor's orders to close its harbours to British shipping. This furnished a pretext for war, and accordingly a French army marched upon **Lisbon**, and at the same time **Joseph Buonaparte**, brother of the French Emperor, was declared King of Spain, in the place of King Ferdinand.

It was at this stage that British troops were sent out. A small force under **Sir Arthur Wellesley**, who had been recalled from India, landed in



SIR JOHN MOORE.

Portugal, where they found that the French had already taken possession of Lisbon. Fighting began at once, and, to the astonishment of all Europe, the French veterans were defeated at the battle of **Vimiera** (1808). So complete was their defeat that the French general agreed to abandon Portugal and return to France with all his troops. This arrangement was made at a place called **Cintra**, and is known as the **Convention of Cintra**.

A second expedition was now despatched under **Sir John Moore**, in order to march through the north of Spain to the assistance of the Spanish armies which still resisted French rule. Moore succeeded in getting as far as a place called **Sahagun**, when the news came that the Emperor himself was advancing at the head of a powerful army. The Spanish troops everywhere gave way, and Moore with his little force was compelled to retreat with all speed towards the sea. **Soult**, one of Napoleon's best generals, followed in pursuit with an army of 60,000 men. The retreat was terrible. At last, after great suffering and loss, Moore with his little force reached the town of **Corunna**, in the north-west corner of Spain.

Wherever the waters of the sea could reach, there the British ships of war could float, and there safety was always to be found. A fleet of men-of-war and transports was expected at Corunna. Once on board, his army would be safe ; but so closely did the enemy press on that it seemed as if the British army might be destroyed before it could embark. There was nothing for it but to fight, and the tired troops turned fiercely at bay. The battle that followed was fiercely contested, but the object of the British was accomplished, and time was gained so that all could reach the ships in safety.

Unhappily, the gallant general of the British army, **Sir John Moore**, was mortally wounded in the battle, January 16th, 1809. The well-known poem by **Wolfe** tells us of his hasty burial on the ramparts of the city.



The Walcheren Expedition—Victories in the Peninsula.

*"This is England's greatest son,
He that gained a hundred fights,
Nor ever lost an English gun;
This is he that far away
Against the myriads of Assaye
Clash'd with his fiery few and won;
Warring on a later day,
Round the frighted Lisbon drew
The treble works and vast designs
Of his labour'd rampart-lines."*

Tennyson: "Lines on the Duke of Wellington."

But with the retreat to Corunna came the end of our misfortunes in Spain, and from that day forward the British troops advanced from victory to victory until they had placed the "Union Jack" on the heights of the Pyrenees, and had fought and won a battle under the walls of Toulouse, on the very soil of France itself.

But while Arthur Wellesley was attacking the farthest point of the great French empire, other dangers threatened it in the heart of Europe. In 1809 Austria again declared war with France, and again the Austrian armies suffered defeat; but in the great battles of **Essling** and **Wagram** they fought with an obstinacy which cost the French dear.

Once more Buonaparte marched in triumph to **Vienna**, and this time, as though to make his conquest secure for ever, he persuaded or compelled the Emperor of Austria to bestow upon him the hand of his daughter, **Marie Louise**, in marriage.

The same year, 1809, was one of varying fortunes as far as Britain was concerned. An expedition of 40,000 men, which was sent to **Walcheren**, in the south-west corner of Holland, ended in a total and disastrous failure. Everything was mismanaged, fever broke out, and thousands of soldiers died miserably. It is said that out of 40,000 men sent out to the Island of Walcheren, no less than 35,000 men were compelled, at one time or another, to go into hospital.

But while the news from Holland was bad, the news from Spain was good, for tidings came that at the battle of **Talavera** (1809) Arthur Wellesley had a second time defeated the French. As a reward for his victory the general received the title of **Viscount Wellington**. But the Spaniards everywhere melted away before the French troops, and for a time Wellington was forced to retreat, and to shelter his army

behind the famous fortifications which he caused to be built round Lisbon, and which were known as the **Lines of "Torres Vedras."**

It was not till 1811 that Wellington felt strong enough to move forward again. In that year he began his march towards the north-east, his object being to drive the French gradually back into their own country.

On the 16th of May was fought the terrible and indecisive battle of **Albuera**. The French were still far too strong, and our Portuguese and Spanish allies far too weak to allow of any real advance into Spain. In the following year, however, a most important piece of news reached Wellington, namely, that the peace between France and Russia was at an end, and that the Emperor had decided to embark on one more great war. From that day the whole energy of Buonaparte was given up to preparing for the great expedition which he had decided to make into the heart of Russia.

Exhausted by many years of war, France could no longer raise army after army as she had done in the first years of the Revolution, Troops could no longer be spared to help Joseph Buonaparte in Spain, and some of the best soldiers were recalled from the Peninsula to take their places in the "Grand Army."

The Russian Campaign—The Abdication of the Emperor —War with the United States.

"Soldiers, the second Polish War has begun. The first ended at Friedland and Tilsit. At Tilsit Russia swore eternal friendship to France, eternal enmity to England. To-day she has violated these oaths. She will vouchsafe no explanation of this strange conduct save that the French Eagles have not recrossed the Rhine and left our allies at her mercy. Russia hurrying to her fate must fulfil her destiny. Does she think that we are degenerate? That we have ceased to be the soldiers of Austerlitz? She offers us the choice between dishonour and war. Can our decision be in doubt? Forward, then; let us cross the Niemen, and carry war into the enemy's territory. The second Polish War shall not be less glorious to the arms of France than was the first; but the peace which we will conclude will bring its own guarantee, and will end for ever the baneful influence which Russia has exerted for 50 years past over the affairs of Europe."—(The Emperor's Proclamation to the Grand Army of Russia.)

On the 24th of June, 1812, the "Grand Army" of 450,000 men began to cross the river Niemen into Russia under the eyes of the Emperor.

It was this same River Niemen upon which the raft had floated on which the Emperors of France and Russia had signed the famous Treaty of Tilsit only five years before.

In January of the same year Wellington's army had broken down the first of the barriers which blocked the road to France, taken by storm the strong fortress of **Ciudad Rodrigo**, and three months later that of **Badajoz**, a still greater and stronger barrier. On the 22nd of July Wellington entirely defeated the French at the battle of **Salamanca**. In September the "Grand Army," after fighting a terrible battle at **Borodino**, in which 80,000 men were killed and wounded, entered the city of **Moscow**, the ancient capital of Russia. They found the city deserted, and in a few days, to the horror of the invaders, there broke out great fires in every quarter of the city, fires kindled by the Russians themselves, who preferred to see their capital burned rather than in the possession of an invader.

There was nothing left to the "Grand Army" but to retreat, and retreat across Northern Russia in the heart of a Russian winter meant death. Frost and famine struck down the retreating soldiers in thousands and tens of thousands. Of the great host which crossed the Niemen scarcely 10,000 returned in any order to the safety of the French frontier. And even here there was no safety, for the French frontier at that time included the Kingdom of Prussia, which had been forced into alliance with the Emperor. Now that the Emperor had fallen, both Austria and Prussia joined forces with the pursuing Russians, and France found herself face to face with the combined armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria on the east, and with the combined armies of Britain, Portugal, and Spain on the south-west.

For a time the genius and military skill of the Emperor enabled him to keep up the unequal struggle, but not for long.

On the 21st of June, 1813, Wellington routed the French Army at **Vittoria**, and sent King Joseph and his Court flying out of Madrid. By the end of the year the duke had crossed the Pyrenees, and on the 10th of April, 1814, he fought a final battle under the walls of **Toulouse**.

But already, ere the battle of Toulouse was fought, Buonaparte had ceased to reign. The three great armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria had succeeded in uniting, and on the 16th of October, 1813, had forced the Emperor to give battle on the outskirts of the city of **Leipsic** in Saxony. Four hundred thousand men were engaged in the battle. It lasted three days, and ended in the total defeat of the French. Six months later, April 4th, 1814, Buonaparte, unable to continue the war, agreed to abdicate. A great meeting, or *Congress*, of the representatives of the Allied Powers met at **Vienna** to decide what should be done with

the Emperor, and how the various countries should recover from France the territories they had lost. It was decided that Buonaparte should be sent to the little island of **Elba**, and that he should receive the rank of "Sovereign" of the island. The British sailors on board the ship "*Undaunted*," which carried him to Elba, stitched together a flag which was hastily invented for the new ruler and his tiny kingdom.

King Louis XVIII., the brother of Louis XVI., who had been executed in 1793; was made King of France, and peace was at last restored to the world.

Unluckily for England, it was not with France alone that peace had to be made, for in 1812 a useless and unfortunate war had broken out between **Great Britain** and the **United States**. In order to protect British commerce from the effects of Buonaparte's "Decrees" our Government had tried to compel all ships of the United States to call at British ports before landing their cargo. They had also allowed British officers to search United States ships for deserters. The Government of the United States complained bitterly. The complaints were listened to and the orders withdrawn, but too late to prevent war.

The unhappy and useless struggle lasted nearly two years, causing much ill-feeling and bringing no advantage to anyone. Englishmen were shocked to find that in several engagements between single ships our sailors were defeated. The fact was that we had grown too confident and had become careless. The United States Government had built vessels which were larger and more powerfully armed than British ships of the same class.

The famous victory of Captain Brooke, of the "*Shannon*," over the "*Chesapeake*" made some amends for a series of disasters, but the capture of the "*Guerrière*" by the "*Constitution*," and of several other single ships, was regarded as a calamity in England. The commerce of the United States on the sea, however, was for a time almost destroyed by the British Navy, which easily held its own in spite of the misfortunes which have been spoken of.

On land the fortunes of the war varied. A British attack on **New Orleans** was defeated with great loss, and our flotilla of boats on **Lake Champlain** was destroyed. A British force, however, entered the city of **Washington** and burnt the Capitol as a reprisal for the burning of the public buildings of Canada by the enemy. A Canadian force, composed largely of the descendants of the "*United Empire Loyalists*," sharply defeated a United States force which tried to enter Canada. The war, which neither side was anxious to prolong, and which had proved disastrous to the shipping of the United States, was brought to an end by a treaty signed at **Ghent**, in Belgium, in December, 1814.



THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW.

(From the picture by Adolphe Yvon.) (By permission of the City of Manchester Art Gallery.)

The "Hundred Days," and Waterloo.

"My Lord,

"Waterloo, June 19th, 1815.

"It gives me the greatest satisfaction to assure your Lordship that the Army never, upon any occasion, conducted itself better. The division of guards . . . set an example which was followed by all; and there is no officer, nor description of troops, that did not behave well. . . . I send with this despatch two eagles taken by the troops in this action, which Major Percy will have the honour of laying at the feet of His Royal Highness."—From the Despatch of Field-Marshal the Duke of Wellington, K.G., to Earl Bathurst, Secretary of State for War.

In the city of Oxford there stands, in an open space not far from Magdalen Bridge, a stone bearing an inscription. The inscription tells



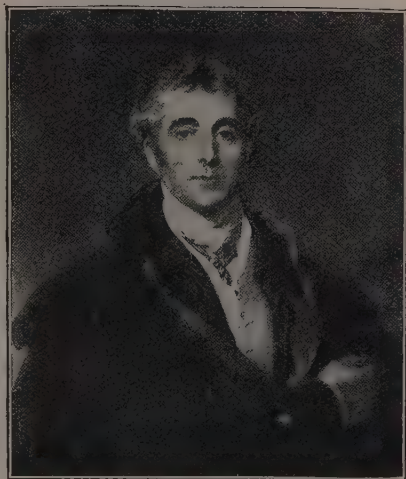
MONUMENT AT OXFORD TO COMMEMORATE
THE PEACE OF 1814.

of the great peace made in 1814, which was welcomed by all the nations of the world as the end of more than twenty years' continuous war. Well might the people of Oxford rejoice that peace had come at last, for it seemed as if peace were for ever banished from the earth. Children had been born in the midst of war time, they had grown up to manhood, had married, and their children had in turn been born into a world in which the sound of the cannon and the clash of arms still drowned the voice of peace. War, war, nothing but war; and now at last, after more than a quarter of a century, peace had come back to the land.

But what is the date upon this stone? It is 1814. We have read in an earlier portion of this book of the "*Famous 'Fifteens*," the four

dates ending in "fifteen" which mark in our history great events. "1215," the first of them, is the date of **Magna Charta**; "1415," the second, is the date of the **Battle of Agincourt**; "1715," the third, the date of the Jacobite rebellion known as "**The 'Fifteen**." The last of the four is the date of a great battle; it is "1815," the date of the famous battle of **Waterloo**. For after all the rejoicings of Oxford and of the entire kingdom in 1814, it turned out that peace was not to return for yet another year, and that the man who so long had plunged all Europe into war was once more, and for the last time, to draw the sword and set the world aflame.

We have seen how, after the abdication of Buonaparte and the Congress of Vienna, the French Emperor had been sent to Elba. It was hoped that in that little island he would be kept safe. Great was the consternation and alarm when, in the month of March, 1815, news reached the Capitals of Europe that Buonaparte had succeeded in escaping from Elba, and had landed at Cannes, in the South of France, and that already the French soldiers who were serving under Louis XVIII.



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON.
(From the portrait by Sir William Beechey, R.A.)

had, with scarcely any exception, forsaken their new sovereign for their old one, and had hastened to put themselves under the orders of the Emperor as soon as he appeared amongst them.

In a few days Buonaparte was in Paris. The King and his Ministers fled at his approach, and as if by magic a French army sprang up, ready once more to fight all Europe under the great General who had so often led French soldiers to victory.

Luckily, however, for Europe this last attempt to restore the fortunes of the fallen Empire came too late. Although the old soldiers of Napoleon's guard were ready to fight once more, the greater part of the French people were tired of the war. Moreover, the great armies which had defeated the Emperor at Leipsic had not yet been broken

up, and thousands of soldiers—Russians, Prussians, Austrians, and British—were still in France, or encamped close to its borders.

It was on the 1st of March that Buonaparte landed at Cannes. On the 16th of June, at the head of a powerful army, he attacked on the same day a British army at **Quatre-Bras** and a Prussian army at **Ligny**. The Prussians, overwhelmed by superior numbers, were driven back; the British held their own with difficulty, and next day retired upon

Waterloo.

The little town of **Waterloo**, which gave its name to the great battle which was fought on the following day (the 18th), lies about twelve miles to the south of the city of **Brussels**, and is separated from it by the great forest of **Soignies**.

It was close to this spot that the Duke of Wellington¹ determined to resist the French attack. He had under his command an army of 67,655 men, with 156 guns. Of the troops, 24,000 were British, 5,821 were foreigners under British command,

the remainder being Hanoverians, Brunswickers, Dutch, and Belgians, who were acting in the British service, or as our allies under the command of the Duke. A very large number of the infantry regiments were made up of very young soldiers, who had not before

¹ The title of "Duke" was conferred upon Wellington at the close of the Peninsular War in 1814.



FIELD-MARSHAL BLÜCHER.

(From the portrait by Sir Thomas Lawrence.)

taken part in war. The French army was composed of 71,947 men, with 246 guns.

The night of the 17th of June was wet and stormy; the soldiers, who were compelled to sleep on the open ground among the unripe corn, were drenched to the skin. The battle began on the morning of the 18th, which was Sunday; both Generals were anxiously hoping for news of the coming of help during the day. A French army of 30,000 men under **Marshal Grouchy** lay watching the Prussians a few miles off, to the south-east.

Message after message was sent bidding Grouchy hasten to the assistance of his chief, but the message arrived late, and when it arrived it was not understood, and Grouchy failed to march in the direction which would have led him to the battlefield.

On the other side the Duke of Wellington was anxiously awaiting aid from the Prussian army under **Marshal Blücher**. That Blücher would come if he could he knew full well, for old "General Vorwarts"¹ as Blücher was called by his men, never failed to hasten towards the sound of the cannon. Whether the Prussians would be able to come, or to come in time, was another matter.

The battle raged fiercely all the morning. The French cavalry and infantry made charge after charge upon the British lines and squares. The loss of life was terrible. A number of the Belgian troops, unused to war, fled from the field, and entering Brussels in confusion, spread the report that the day was lost. But the day was not lost. About midday the sound of firing upon the French right was heard. Some thought it was Grouchy, some that it was Blücher.

It turned out to be the vanguard of the Prussian troops under **Bülow**. This was good news indeed for the British General. If only his troops could hold firm till the Prussians arrived, the day was won. They did more than hold firm; as evening fell, a great and final attack was made by the French guards upon the British line. Like all other attacks, it was beaten back. The Duke gave the order to charge the retreating enemy. The retreat soon became a rout, for by this time the Prussian army was fiercely attacking the right of the French line. Resistance was no longer possible. The French fled in hopeless confusion, pursued by the Prussians. Wellington and Blücher met upon the field of battle. Buonaparte, borne away by his flying troops, escaped with difficulty. The victory was complete, but the loss had been great. The loss of the allies was 22,976 killed and wounded; the French lost over 30,000, besides many prisoners.

¹ "General Forwards."

The Prisoner of St. Helena.

*"Farewell to the land, where the gloom of my glory,
Arose and o'er-shadowed the earth with her name—
She abandons me now—but the page of her story,
The brightest or blackest, is filled with my fame.
I have warr'd with the world which vanquished me only
When the meteor of conquest allured me too far;
I have coped with the nations which dread me thus lonely,
The last single Captive to millions in war."*

Byron : "Napoleon's Farewell."

Resistance was now really at an end. The allied armies marched on Paris. Once more King Louis was put back upon the throne; once more the fallen Emperor was a fugitive. Not knowing where to turn, he gave himself up a prisoner to the captain of the British ship *Bellerophon*. It was agreed that he should be confined in the little island of **St. Helena**, in the Atlantic Ocean, and thither he was taken. It was not till the year 1821 that Napoleon Buonaparte died in his island prison, but his part in European history had been played when he left the field of Waterloo, and it will be well here to tell in a few words the remaining story of his life.

From St. Helena he never escaped. The Governor, **Sir Hudson Lowe**, kept his prisoner safely. It is to be regretted that he was not content with this, but it cannot be doubted that he treated the fallen Emperor with a want of generosity and courtesy which has left a stain upon his name as a British officer. That Sir Hudson Lowe did what he thought was his duty, and that he believed that he was carrying out the orders which were given to him, can hardly be doubted; and it must be said on his behalf that Buonaparte had so often in his life broken his word and disregarded every obligation of truth and honour, that it would have been a great mistake to trust him or to believe him. But it is always well to respect the misfortunes of the fallen and to be generous to a defeated enemy, and that Sir Hudson Lowe was neither respectful nor generous is only too true.

Buonaparte died on the 5th of May, 1821. In the year 1840, by permission of the British Government, his body was brought back to France in a French ship of war, and was buried with great pomp in the stately tomb which now stands under the Dome of the "Invalides," in Paris.

The story of the battle of Waterloo has been told at some length,

for, though since the year 1815 many great and many important battles have been fought, the battle of Waterloo still takes its place, and will always take its place, as one of the most famous and most important in history. It brought about the fall of the great man who for so long had been the terror of Europe. It put an end to a war which had lasted for a quarter of a century, and restored peace to the suffering nations. To everyone of British blood the name must be specially memorable, for on that famous Sunday in June the young soldiers of Britain showed to all the world that they were a match in endurance and courage for the most famous veterans of Europe, and the name of Britain was raised to the first place among the nations of Europe:

"So great a soldier taught us there
What long enduring hearts could do
In that world-earthquake Waterloo!"¹

CHAPTER LXXII.

GEORGE IV. AND WILLIAM IV.—THE GREAT PEACE.

1820-1837.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED IN THE REIGNS OF GEORGE IV.,
1820-1830, AND WILLIAM IV., 1830-1837.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>George IV., King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Elector of Hanover, eldest son of George III. and Queen Charlotte, b. 1762, became king 1820, d. 1830.</p> <p>Caroline of Brunswick, wife of George IV., m. 1795, d. 1821.</p> <p>William, Duke of Clarence, brother of George IV., b. 1765, became king as William IV. and Elector of Hanover 1830, d. 1837.</p> <p>Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen, wife of William IV., m. 1814, d. 1840.</p> <p>Victoria, only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, brother of George IV., afterwards queen.</p> <p>Ernest Augustus, King of Hanover, brother of George IV.</p> <p>Louis XVIII. (Bourbon), King of France, d. 1824.</p> <p>Charles X. (Bourbon), brother of Louis XVIII., deposed 1830.</p> <p>Louis Philippe (Orleans), King of France.</p> <p>Francis II., Emperor, became Francis II., the first Emperor of Austria, 1804, d. 1835.</p> | <p>Ferdinand, Emperor of Austria.</p> <p>Frederick William III., King of Prussia.</p> <p>Ferdinand VII., King of Spain, d. 1833.</p> <p>Isabella II., Queen of Spain.</p> <p>Alexander I., Emperor of Russia, d. 1825.</p> <p>Nicholas I., Emperor of Russia.</p> <p>Presidents of the United States:—
 James Monroe, 1825.
 John Quincy Adams, 1825 to 1829.
 General Andrew Jackson, 1829 to 1837.</p> <p>Principal Ministers of George IV.:—
 George Canning, d. 1827.
 Robert Jenkinson, Earl of Liverpool, d. 1828.
 Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington.</p> <p>Sir Robert Peel.</p> <p>Principal Ministers of William IV.:—
 Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington.
 Sir Robert Peel.
 Charles, Earl Grey.
 William Lamb, Viscount Melbourne.</p> <p>Great Writers (1820-1837):—
 George Crabbe, b. 1754, d. 1832.
 William Wordsworth, b. 1770.</p> |
|---|--|

¹ Tennyson.

Sir Walter Scott, b. 1771, d. 1832.
 Samuel Taylor Coleridge, b. 1772, d. 1834.
 Robert Southey, b. 1774.
 Thomas Campbell, b. 1777.
 Thomas Moore, b. 1779.
 Bishop Reginald Heber, b. 1783, d. 1826.
 George, Lord Byron, b. 1788, d. 1824.
 Percy Bysshe Shelley, b. 1792, d. 1822.
 Thomas Hood, b. 1798.
 Charles Lamb, b. 1775, d. 1834.
 Washington Irving (American), b. 1783.
 Captain F. Marryat, b. 1792.
 Mrs. Felicia Hemans, b. 1794, d. 1835.
 Thomas Carlyle, b. 1795.
 Thomas Babington, Lord Macaulay, b. 1800.
 Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton, b. 1805.
 W. Harrison Ainsworth, b. 1805.
 Mrs. E. B. Browning, b. 1806.
 Alfred, Lord Tennyson, b. 1809.

German Writer:—

J. W. von Goethe, b. 1749, d. 1832.
 Great Painters (1820-1837):—
 Sir Henry Raeburn (English), d. 1823.
 Sir Thomas Lawrence (English), d. 1830.
 J. M. W. Turner (English), b. 1775.
 John Flaxman (Sculptor), d. 1826.
 Daniel O'Connell, b. 1775.
 William Wilberforce, d. 1833.
 Sir T. Fowell Buxton, b. 1786.
 John, Earl Russell, b. 1792.
 Henry, Lord Brougham, b. 1778.
 Henry, Viscount Palmerston, b. 1784.
 George Stephenson, b. 1781.
 Sir W. Herschel (Astronomer), d. 1822.
 Sir Humphry Davy, d. 1829.
 Sir John Franklin (Arctic Explorer), d. 1847.
 Great Musicians:—
 L. Beethoven (German), d. 1827.
 F. Mendelssohn-Bartholdy (German), b. 1809.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGNS OF GEORGE IV. AND WILLIAM IV. (1820-1837).

1820. George IV. becomes king.
 Cato Street conspiracy.
 1821. Death of Buonaparte at St. Helena.
 1822. Potato famine in Ireland.
 1825. Stockton and Darlington Railway opened.
 1827. Battle of Navarino.
 1828. The Duke of Wellington Prime Minister.
 Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.
 Death of the Earl of Liverpool.
 1829. Catholic Relief Bill passed.
 Peel's Metropolitan Police Act passed.
 The Sultan acknowledges the independence of Greece.
 1830. Death of George IV.

1830. William IV. becomes king.
 Liverpool and Manchester Railway opened.
 Charles X., King of France, abdicates, and is succeeded by Louis Philippe.
 1831. Reform Bill introduced, and rejected by the House of Lords.
 Riots in various places.
 1832. Lord Grey becomes Prime Minister.
 The Reform Bill passed.
 1833. Colonial Slavery abolished.
 First Factory Act.
 1834. Lord Melbourne succeeds Lord Grey.
 Lord Melbourne replaced by Sir Robert Peel.
 1837. Death of William IV.

The Regency—George IV.—Navarino.

*"Prouder scenes never hallowed war's pomp to the mind,
 Than when Christendom's pennons wooed social the wind,
 And the flower of her brave for the combat combined,
 Her watchword, Humanity's vow!"*

Campbell, describing the Allied Fleets at Navarino.

WE now come to what seems the beginning of quite a fresh chapter in the history of our country. Hitherto in this book we have been reading chiefly about *wars* and fighting and of the long struggle in which Britain was compelled to take a part. It is impossible to write the

history of those times without giving up much space to these things, for when a country is fighting for its life in every part of the world, the history of the fight must occupy a great, if not the first, place in any records of the events of the time.

Now, however, we have come, happily, once more to a time of *peace*, when the great events which occupy our attention are no longer battles by sea and land, no longer the conquest of new territories from our enemies, but rather the conquests of science and invention, the growth of our territory by peaceful settlement and colonisation, and the improvement of our laws by the wisdom of our statesmen and the orderly pressure of the people.

In many ways it seems as if the history of "modern" England, such as we know it, begins after the year 1815. Some of the great questions which then began to be talked about for the first time have only been settled within quite recent years. Some of them are still unsettled. There are many other things, too, which mark a division between the time before 1815 and the years which have passed between 1815 and the present day. We shall read about some of these things in these pages.

Meanwhile we must go back for a little to the study of dates, and must learn something about the order in which the Sovereigns of England came to the throne, and about the principal Ministers who in turn directed the government of the country.

It will not be necessary to say very much about these things, for the history of the last ninety years has depended very little upon what was done by George IV. or William IV.; and though it made a great deal of difference to the country whether it had good or bad Ministers, it will be best to speak about those Ministers when we come to describe the particular work in which each of them took a special part.

Still, in order that we may understand the chapters which follow, it will be well to go very quickly through some of the facts and dates which ought to be remembered by those who want to follow the history of the nineteenth century.

When the battle of Waterloo was fought, King **George III.** was still on the throne, but for some years past he had been a king in name only. The madness which had overtaken him once or twice in his reign had now greatly increased, and it had been found necessary to make his son Regent. For several years before he became king, George IV. really occupied the place of king under the name of Regent.

In 1815, therefore, George III. was still king, but his mind had given way, and his son **George** exercised the royal power as Regent.

The Prime Minister was the **Earl of Liverpool**; **Canning** was one of the most important men in the United Kingdom, and the **Duke of Wellington**, who had served the country so well, not only as a general in the field, but as an ambassador charged with the duty of arranging peace, had perhaps more power and influence than either **Lord Liverpool** or **Canning**.

GEORGE IV.

In 1820 **George III.** died, and was succeeded by his son, **George IV.**⁽¹⁰⁵⁾ In 1827 the



GEORGE IV.

Earl of Liverpool fell ill, and had to give up his office. He was succeeded as Prime Minister by **Canning**. In this year was fought the battle of **Navarino** (1827), which must be mentioned, in the first place, because it is the only sea-battle in which England has taken part since **Trafalgar**; in the second place, it is remarkable because three great nations which so often, both before and since, have found themselves enemies, for once

fought side by side as friends against a common enemy.

The story of the battle can be shortly told. The *Greeks*, who had long been trying to free themselves from the hated rule of the *Turks*, had risen in insurrection to regain their liberty. The *Turks* did their best to put them down with savage cruelty. At last the great Powers of Europe could allow the *Greeks* to be oppressed no longer. They gave notice to both *Turks* and *Greeks* that the quarrel must cease, and that an arrangement must be come to.

The Turks refused to listen to them. A combined fleet of British, French, and Russian ships was sent to Navarino, on the west coast of the Morea. A conflict might perhaps have been avoided, but one of the Turkish ships unwisely fired a shot. This was the signal for a general action, and after a hard fight the Turkish force was absolutely destroyed. The independence of Greece was now possible, and the little kingdom of Greece, with its capital in the ancient and famous city of Athens, exists to this day.

At the time of the battle, the Prime Minister of this country was **Lord Goderich**, for in the month of August Canning had died. Goderich however, was not an able enough man for the high office which he filled, and his ministry only lasted four months. In January, 1828, he was replaced by the **Duke of Wellington** as Prime Minister. A very famous man, **Robert Peel**, afterwards known as Sir Robert Peel, was appointed to the office of Home Secretary, a post which he had already filled seven years earlier under **Lord Liverpool**.

Catholic Emancipation and Reform—Slavery— The Factory Act.

"I believe a substantial measure of reform would elevate and strengthen the character of our population; that, in the language of the beautiful prayer read here,¹ it would 'tend to knit together the hearts of all persons and estates within this Realm.' I believe it would add to the authority of the decisions of Parliament; and I feel satisfied it would confer a lustre, which time can never dim, on that benignant reign under which we have the happiness to live."—*John Bright: Reform Speeches*, 1859.

WILLIAM IV.

In 1829 was passed the great Act known as the **Act for Catholic Emancipation**. Something more about this Act will be found later on in this book, but it must be mentioned shortly in its proper place here. In 1830 **George IV.** died, and was succeeded by his brother William, under the title of **William IV.**⁽¹⁰⁷⁾

In the same year the Duke of Wellington lost one of his colleagues by a sad accident. The accident is memorable because it serves to remind us of a very important event. In the month of September, 1830, the Duke of Wellington with a large party went down to Lancashire to witness the running of the first trains upon the new

¹ In the House of Commons.

"Railway" which had just been made between **Manchester** and **Liverpool**. The famous engine built by **George Stephenson**, and named "**The Rocket**," astonished all men by drawing its train at the rate of thirty miles an hour. It was a wonderful success. Unluckily, the day was marked by one misfortune—Mr. Huskisson, who had filled the office of Secretary for the Colonies under the Duke of Wellington, was

knocked down and killed. This incident serves as a landmark in our history, to remind us that this was the time when the first railway trains ran in England; and was the real beginning of the great railway system which has since spread all over the United Kingdom and the world.



WILLIAM IV.

In 1830 the Duke of Wellington's Ministry came to an end. The reason of its fall was the refusal of the Duke to agree to the plan for a "**Reform Bill**" which was proposed to him by **Lord Grey**. By the Reform Bill a great number of persons, who up to

this time had no right to vote for Members of Parliament, were to be given the right to vote. The Reform Bill, like the Bill for Catholic Emancipation, must be mentioned here, but something more must be said about Parliamentary Reform in another chapter.

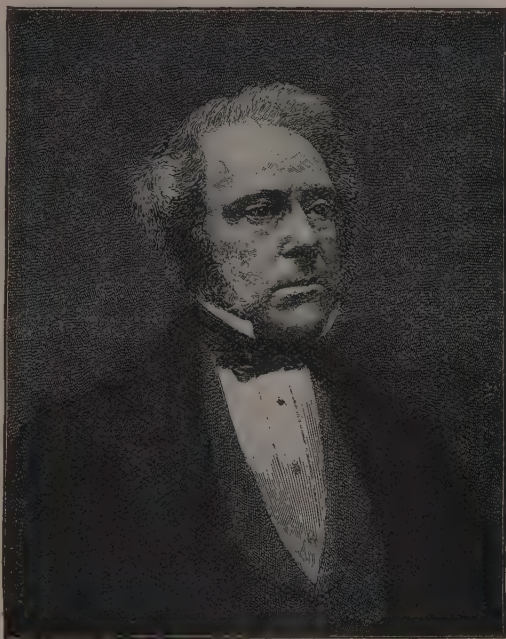
Lord Grey now became Prime Minister, and under him were three very famous men—**Lord John Russell**, **Lord Melbourne**, and **Lord Palmerston**, each of whom in turn became Prime Minister of England. Lord Grey, having advised the Duke of Wellington to bring in a Reform Bill, now of course felt bound to follow his own advice and to bring one in himself. In 1831 the Bill was brought in, but it only passed through

the House of Commons by a majority of **one**. It was withdrawn, and a new Parliament summoned. In the new Parliament there was a great majority in favour of the Bill. It was brought in by Lord John Russell, and passed by a majority of 136; but the House of Lords refused to pass it.

The refusal caused great disturbance in the country, and in some places there were riots, and the feeling against the House of Lords was very strong. At the end of 1831 the Bill was brought in a third time, and in 1832 it came before the House of Lords again. The Duke of Wellington, who had hitherto opposed the Bill, now consented to its passage, for he felt that to refuse any longer would be dangerous to the country. On the 7th June, 1832, the Bill was passed into law.

One or two very important things were done by the Government of

Lord Grey besides passing the great Reform Bill. In 1833 a famous Act was passed, by which **slavery** was for ever put an end to within the British Dominions. The **Slave Trade**—that is to say, the trade of capturing free men in Africa, carrying them across the sea, and selling them as slaves in British colonies or in the United States—had been put an end to twenty-six years before, when Fox was Prime Minister. The Act now passed set free all the slaves belonging to British subjects in any part of the world.



LORD PALMERSTON.

(Photo: Fradelle & Young, Regent Street, W.)

In the same year was passed the **Factory Act**, by which it was made illegal to employ children under thirteen years of age for more than eight hours a day, or persons between thirteen and eighteen for more than twelve hours a day. Since 1833 many other Acts have been passed shortening the hours of work, but this one deserves to be remembered because it was the first.

In 1834 Lord Grey's Ministry came to an end, and **Lord Melbourne** became Prime Minister, but only for a very short time, for in the same year **Sir Robert Peel** succeeded him. Peel dissolved Parliament, hoping to get a majority of Conservatives to support him. After the Reform Bill the Conservative party had for a time almost vanished from the House of Commons. What was then called the Liberal party numbered 486 members, while the Conservatives had only 172 members. In the new Parliament of 1835 many more Conservatives were returned, but not enough to give Peel a majority. He resigned in April, and **Lord Melbourne** again became Prime Minister.

In June, 1837, King William IV. died, and was succeeded by his niece the Princess **Victoria**,⁽¹¹³⁾ daughter of his younger brother **Edward**,⁽¹⁰⁷⁾ **Duke of Kent**, who had died in 1820.



CHAPTER LXXIII.

THE DAYS OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

1837-1852.

FAMOUS PERSONS WHO LIVED, OR ARE LIVING, IN THE REIGN
OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

Victoria, Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Empress of India, only child of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III., b. 1819, became Queen 1837.

Albert, Duke of Saxe-Coburg, Prince Consort, and husband of Queen Victoria, b. 1819, m. 1840, d. 1861.

Victoria Adelaide, Princess Royal, b. 1840, m. 1858 Prince Frederick William of Prussia, afterwards German Emperor.

Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, b. 1841, m. Princess Alexandra of Denmark 1863.

Children of the Prince and Princess of Wales:—

Albert Victor, Duke of Clarence and Avondale, b. 1864, d. 1892.

George, Duke of York, b. 1865, m. Princess Victoria Mary (May) of Teck 1893.

Children of the Duke of York:—

Edward, b. 23rd June, 1894.

Albert, b. 14th December, 1895.

Victoria Alexandra Alice Mary, b. 25th April, 1897.

Louise Victoria, b. 1867, m. Duke of Fife 1889.

Victoria Alexandra, b. 1868.

Maude, b. 1869, m. Prince Charles of Denmark, 1896.

Alexander John, b. 1871, d. 1871.

Alice, b. 1843, m. Prince Louis of Hesse 1862, d. 1878.

Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, Duke of Saxe-Coburg, b. 1844, m. Grand Duchess Marie of Russia 1874.

Helena, b. 1846, m. Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein 1866.

Louise, b. 1848, m. the Marquis of Lorne, eldest son of the Duke of Argyll, 1871.

Arthur, Duke of Connaught, b. 1850, m. Princess Louise Margaret of Prussia 1879.

Leopold, Duke of Albany, b. 1853, m. Princess Helen of Waldeck Pyrmont, 1882, d. 1884.

Beatrice, b. 1857, m. Prince Henry of Battenberg 1885 (d. 1896).

Adelaide, wife of William IV. (Queen Dowager), d. 1849.

Victoria, Duchess of Kent, mother of Queen Victoria, d. 1861.

George William, Duke of Cambridge, b. 1819, cousin to the Queen.

Mary Adelaide, cousin to Queen Victoria, b. 1833, m. the Duke of Teck, mother of the Duchess of York, d. 1897.

Louis-Philippe (Orleans), King of France, abdicated 1848, d. an exile in England, 1850.

Second French Republic:—

Charles Louis Napoleon, elected President 1848.

Empire Restored:—

Napoleon III. (Charles Louis Napoleon) elected Emperor 1852, deposed 1870, d. in England 1873.

Eugenie-Marie, wife of Napoleon III.

Napoleon, Prince Imperial, son of above, b. 1856, d. 1879.

Third French Republic. Presidents of the French Republic:—

Louis Adolphe Thiers, b. 1797, elected 1871, resigned 1873, d. 1877.

Marshal M. E. MacMahon, b. 1808, elected 1873, resigned 1879, d. 1893.

François Paul Jules Grévy, b. 1813, elected 1879, resigned 1887, d. 1891.

Marie François Sadi Carnot, b. 1837, elected 1887, assassinated 1894.

J. P. Casimir-Périer, b. 1847, elected 1894, resigned 1895.

F. Félix Faure, b. 1841, elected 1895, d. 1899.

Emile Loubet, b. 1838, elected 1899.

Ferdinand, Emperor of Austria, abdicated 1848.

Francis Joseph (nephew of Ferdinand), Emperor of Austria, became also King of Hungary 1867.

Frederick William III., King of Prussia, d. 1840.

Frederick William IV., King of Prussia, d. 1861.

William I., King of Prussia, proclaimed German Emperor 1871, d. 1888.

Frederick III., King of Prussia and German Emperor d. 1888.

William II., King of Prussia and German Emperor.

- Isabella II., Queen of Spain, abdicated 1870.
- Amadeo I., King of Spain, abdicated 1873.
- Alfonso XII., King of Spain, d. 1885.
- Queen Christina, widow of Alfonso XII., elected Regent 1885.
- Alfonso XIII., b. 1886, became King of Spain 1886 (Queen Christina Regent during Alfonso's minority).
- Nicholas I., Emperor of Russia, d. 1853.
- Alexander II., Emperor of Russia, assassinated 1881.
- Alexander III., Emperor of Russia, d. 1894.
- Nicholas II., Emperor of Russia 1894.
- Frederick VI., King of Denmark, d. 1839.
- Christian VIII., King of Denmark, d. 1848.
- Frederick VII., King of Denmark, d. 1863.
- Christian IX., King of Denmark, b. 1818.
- Charles XIV., King of Sweden and Norway, d. 1844.
- Oscar I., King of Sweden and Norway, d. 1859.
- Charles XV., King of Sweden and Norway, d. 1872.
- Oscar II., King of Sweden and Norway, b. 1829.
- Victor Emmanuel II., King of Sardinia 1849, became first King of Italy 1861, d. 1878.
- Humbert, King of Italy, b. 1844.
- Gregory XVI., Pope, d. 1846.
- Pius IX., Pope, d. 1878.
- Leo XIII., Pope, b. 1810.
- Presidents of the United States:—
- Martin Van Buren, 1837-1841.
- General William H. Harrison, 1841, d. 1841.
- John Tyler, 1841-1845.
- James Knox Polk, 1845-1849.
- General Zachary Taylor, 1849, d. 1850.
- Millard Fillmore, 1850-1853.
- General Franklin Pierce, 1853-1857.
- James Buchanan, 1857-1861.
- Abraham Lincoln, 1861, assassinated 1865.
- Andrew Johnson, 1865-1869.
- General Ulysses S. Grant, 1869-1873, 1873-1877.
- Rutherford B. Hayes, 1877-1881.
- General J. Abraham Garfield, 1881, assassinated 1881.
- Chester A. Arthur, 1881-1885.
- Grover Cleveland, 1885-1889.
- General Benjamin Harrison, 1889-1893.
- Grover Cleveland, 1893-1896.
- William McKinley, 1896.
- Great Writers from 1837 to the present day:—
- William Wordsworth, b. 1770, d. 1850.
- Robert Southey, b. 1774, d. 1843.
- Thomas Campbell, b. 1777, d. 1844.
- Henry Hallam (Historian), b. 1777, d. 1859.
- Thomas Moore, b. 1779, d. 1852.
- Thomas Hood, b. 1798, d. 1845.
- Washington Irving (American), b. 1783, d. 1859.
- James H. Leigh Hunt, b. 1784, d. 1859.
- James Fenimore Cooper, b. 1789, d. 1851.
- Captain F. Marryat, b. 1792, d. 1848.
- John Keble, b. 1792, d. 1866.
- Thomas Carlyle, b. 1795, d. 1881.
- Thomas Babington, Lord Macaulay, b. 1800, d. 1859.
- John Henry, Cardinal Newman, b. 1801, d. 1890.
- Harriet Martineau, b. 1802, d. 1876.
- Edward Bulwer, Lord Lytton, b. 1805, d. 1873.
- W. Harrison Ainsworth, b. 1805, d. 1882.
- Charles Lever, b. 1806, d. 1872.
- John Stuart Mill, b. 1806, d. 1873.
- Mrs. E. B. Browning, b. 1806, d. 1861.
- H. W. Longfellow, b. 1807, d. 1882.
- Charles Darwin, b. 1809, d. 1882.
- Alfred, Lord Tennyson, b. 1809, d. 1892.
- W. M. Thackeray, b. 1811, d. 1863.
- Charles Dickens, b. 1812, d. 1870.
- Robert Browning, b. 1812, d. 1889.
- Charlotte Brontë, b. 1816, d. 1855.
- J. A. Froude, b. 1818, d. 1894.
- Charles Kingsley, b. 1819, d. 1875.
- "George Eliot" (Mrs. G. H. Lewes), b. 1819, d. 1880.
- John Ruskin, b. 1819.
- Matthew Arnold, b. 1822, d. 1888.
- Alfred Austin, Poet Laureate, b. 1835.
- A. C. Swinburne, b. 1837.
- Chief Ministers of Queen Victoria:—
- William, Viscount Melbourne, d. 1848.
- Sir Robert Peel, d. 1850.
- John, Earl Russell, d. 1878.
- Edward, Earl of Derby, d. 1869.
- George Gordon, Earl of Aberdeen, d. 1860.
- Henry Temple, Viscount Palmerston, d. 1865.
- Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield, d. 1881.
- William Ewart Gladstone, b. 1809.
- Robert Gascoyne-Cecil, Marquis of Salisbury, b. 1830.
- Archibald Primrose, Earl of Rosebery, b. 1847.
- Henry, Lord Brougham, d. 1868.
- Richard Cobden, d. 1865.
- W. E. Forster, d. 1886.
- John Bright, d. 1889.
- Sir Rowland Hill, d. 1879.
- Daniel O'Connell, d. 1847.
- Charles S. Farnell, d. 1891.
- Great Painters:—
- J. M. W. Turner (English), d. 1851.
- Sir Edwin Landseer (English), d. 1873.
- Great Musicians:—
- F. Mendelssohn-Bartholdy (German), d. 1848.
- W. R. Wagner (German), d. 1883.
- Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, d. 1852.
- Sir Charles Napier, d. 1853.
- Sir James Outram, d. 1863.
- Viscount Hugh Gough, d. 1869.
- Sir Henry Havelock, d. 1857.

Sir Henry Lawrence, d. 1857.
 Colin Campbell, Lord Clyde, d. 1863.
 General Charles G. Gordon, killed at
 Khartoum 1885.
 Robert, Baron Napier of Magdala, d.
 1890.
 George Stephenson, d. 1848.
 Captain John H. Speke (explorer of the
 Nile), d. 1864.

Captain James A. Grant (explorer of the
 Nile), d. 1892.
 David Livingstone, d. 1873.
 Mrs. Elizabeth Fry, d. 1845.
 Sir T. Fowell Buxton, d. 1845.
 Sir John F. Herschel (Astronomer), d.
 1871.
 Sir Richard Owen (Physician), d. 1892.
 Professor T. H. Huxley, d. 1895.

PRINCIPAL EVENTS DURING THE REIGN OF QUEEN VICTORIA.

- 1837. Accession of Her Majesty Queen Victoria (June 20th).
 Insurrection in Canada defeated.
 First electric telegraph erected.
- 1839. War with China.
 The Chartist Agitation.
- 1840. Marriage of Queen Victoria to Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg Gotha.
 Penny Postage introduced.
- 1841. Birth of Albert Edward, Prince of Wales.
 Resignation of Lord Melbourne, succeeded by Sir Robert Peel.
- 1842. Massacre of British troops in Afghanistan.
 Peace with China.
- 1843. Agitation in Ireland for the repeal of the Union, in England for abolition of Corn Laws.
- 1845. Sikh War.
 Potato famine and distress in Ireland.
- 1846. End of Sikh War.
 Repeal of the Corn Laws.
- 1848. Chartist demonstration on Kennington Common.
 Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act in Ireland.
 Abdication of Louis Philippe. A Republic proclaimed.
 Revolutionary riots in France.
 Death of Lord Melbourne.
- 1849. Battle of Chilianwallah.
 Annexation of the Punjaub to British dominions.
 The Queen visits Ireland.
- 1850. Death of Sir Robert Peel.
- 1851. Lord Russell resigns, but resumes office.
 Louis Napoleon's *coup d'état* in Paris.
- 1852. Lord Derby succeeds Lord Russell.
 Death of the Duke of Wellington.
 Coalition Ministry formed containing Lords Aberdeen, Russell, and Palmerston.
 Louis Napoleon makes himself Emperor of the French.
- 1854. Commencement of the Crimean War.
 Battles of the Alma and Inkermann.
- 1855. Resignation of Lord Aberdeen. Lord Palmerston succeeds.
 Capture of Sebastopol: end of Crimean War.
- 1856. Treaty of Paris.
 War with China and with Persia.
- 1857. The Indian Mutiny begins.
- 1858. Resignation of Lord Palmerston. Lord Derby succeeds.
 Suppression of the Indian Mutiny; the Queen proclaimed Sovereign of India.
- 1859. Lord Derby resigns, and is succeeded by Lord Palmerston.
 Beginning of the Volunteer movement.
- 1861. Death of the Prince Consort.
 Commencement of the Civil War in the United States.
- 1861-4. Cotton famine in Lancashire.
- 1865. Death of Lord Palmerston; Lord Russell Prime Minister.
- 1866. Lord Derby Prime Minister.
 Second Reform Bill passed.
- 1867. Fenian outbreak suppressed.
 Parliamentary Reform Bill passed.
- 1868. Resignation of Lord Derby, succeeded by Mr. Disraeli.
 Mr. Gladstone succeeds Mr. Disraeli.
- 1870. Education Act passed.
 War between France and Germany.
- 1872. Ballot Act passed.
- 1874. Mr. Gladstone resigns. Mr. Disraeli succeeds.
- 1876. Queen Victoria takes the title of "Empress of India."
- 1877. Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress at Delhi.
 War between Russia and Turkey.
- 1878. Treaty of Berlin.
- 1879. Zulu War.
- 1880. Mr. Gladstone Prime Minister.
 Abandonment of the Transvaal.
- 1881. Death of Lord Beaconsfield.
- 1882. Bombardment of Alexandria.
- 1884. Abandonment of General Gordon.
 Reform Bill passed.
- 1885. Lord Salisbury Prime Minister.
- 1886. Defeat of Mr. Gladstone on the question of Home Rule for Ireland.
- 1887. Jubilee of Queen Victoria.
- 1888. Local Government (County Councils) Act passed.
- 1891. Elementary Education made free.
- 1892. Mr. Gladstone Prime Minister.
- 1894. Local Government (Parish Councils) Act passed.
 Lord Rosebery Prime Minister.
- 1895. Lord Salisbury Prime Minister.
- 1897. War between Turkey and Greece.
 Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria.

Canada—The Chartists.

"The noble and illustrious lady who sits upon the throne—she whose gentle hand wields the sceptre over that wide Empire of which we are the heart and the centre."—John Bright, 1866.

WE now come to the beginning of a time which seems more familiar to us than any that has gone before—namely, the reign of **Queen**



QUEEN VICTORIA.

(From the painting by W. C. Ross, A.R.A.)

Victoria. In June, 1837, William IV. died. He left no children, and the next heir to the throne was his niece, the Princess **Victoria**,⁽¹¹³⁾ daughter of his younger brother, the Duke of Kent. On the 28th day of June, 1838, Queen Victoria was crowned in splendid state, seated in the famous and ancient chair used by the Sovereigns of England, and with which is enclosed the "Stone of Destiny" on which the monarchs of Scotland took their seat many hundred years ago. She was just eighteen when she became Queen.

The young Queen soon found that matters of great and high importance were being discussed at her Council Board. A difficulty had arisen in the great colony of **Canada**, where bad government and an unsuitable Constitution had aroused great discontent, and actually led to an armed rebellion. Happily, a wise statesman, **Lord Durham**, was sent out to restore order, and by following the advice he gave, the British Government was enabled to arrange matters peaceably. An Act of Parliament was passed in 1840, which settled for the future what was to be the position of the mother country and the colony. The two divisions of Canada known as **Upper** and **Lower Canada** were united under *one Parliament*.

In 1840 Queen Victoria was married to her cousin, **Prince Albert** ⁽¹¹⁴⁾ of Saxe-Coburg, a man of noble character and of great learning and accomplishments. His death in 1861 was a deep and lasting sorrow to the Queen.

In the years 1839 and 1840 there were serious disturbances in England, which at one time caused great alarm. These disturbances arose from the action of the so-called *Chartists*. The Chartists were men who had drawn up a list of political changes which they declared ought to be made at once, and which they said were absolutely necessary for the good of the country. There were six things which they demanded, and these were written down in a declaration, or Charter, and were called the six points of the Charter. The six points were as follows:—

- (1) **Annual Parliaments** — that is to say, that there should be a fresh Parliament elected every year.
- (2) **Manhood Suffrage**—that is to say, that every grown-up man in the country should have the right to vote for a Member of Parliament.
- (3) **Vote by Ballot**—that is to say, that voting for Members of Parliament should be secret, in order that the voters might be free to vote as they pleased without interference.
- (4) **Equal Electoral Districts**—that is to say, that the country should be cut up into a number of districts or "*Constituencies*," all having the same number of inhabitants, and that each of these districts should send one Member to Parliament.
- (5) **The Abolition of a Property Qualification**—that is to say, that any man might be elected a Member of Parliament, *whether he owned any property or not*.
- (6) **That all Members of Parliament should be paid.**



ALBERT, PRINCE CONSORT.
(From the painting by W. C. Ross, A.R.A.)

Some of the points of the Charter have since been agreed to and have become law. Members of Parliament are now elected *by ballot*, and *they need not have any property*. The districts which send Members to Parliament, though they are not all of exactly the same size, are much more nearly equal than they used to be. There are those who still hope that the other three points of the Charter may some day become law also.

At the same time, however, those who were in favour of the Charter threatened to use great violence if they did not get their way at once. A great petition to Parliament was drawn up, and an enormous crowd, led by **Feergus O'Connor** and **Ernest Jones**, tried to bring it before Parliament. But Parliament would not receive the petition, which it declared was sent to it as a threat, and refused to listen to any claim that was supported by violence and force. The refusal of Parliament led to serious rioting in some places, and at **Newport**, in Monmouthshire, soldiers had to be called out to fire upon the people.

The Anti-Corn-Law League—The Potato Famine.

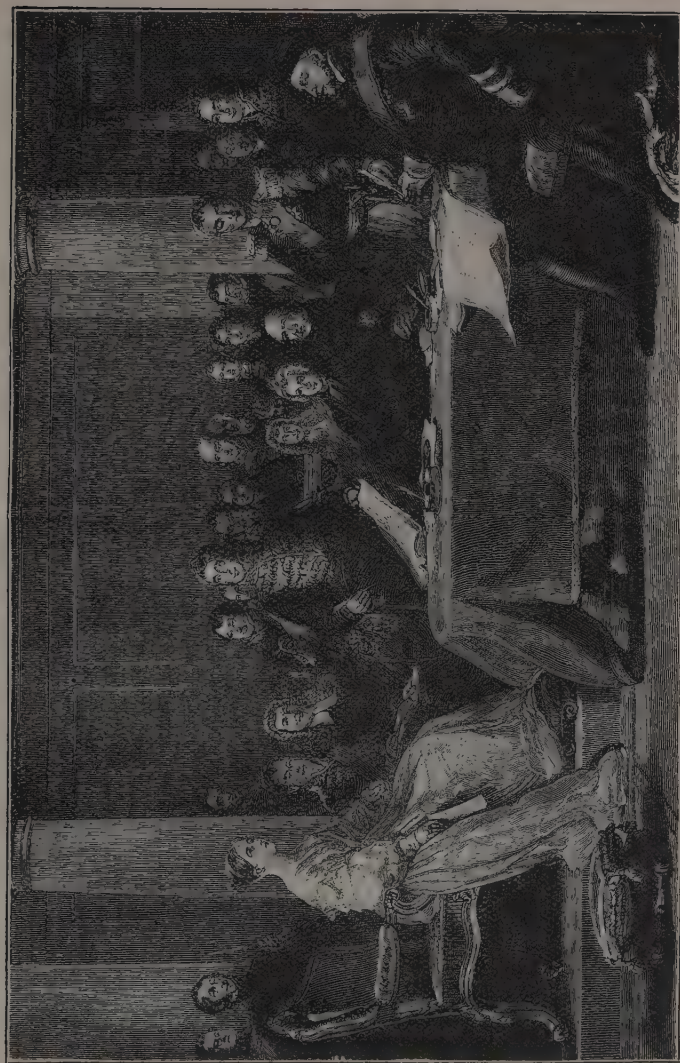
THE FOUR "DEARS."

*"Dear Sugar, dear Tea, and dear Corn,
Conspired with dear Representation
To laugh worth and honour to scorn,
And 'beggars the whole British nation."*

Ebenezer Elliott: "Corn Law Songs."

We now come to a very important time in our history, for it was in the year 1838 that the movement first began against the laws by which corn was taxed on being imported into this country. In that year the **Anti-Corn-Law League**, the object of which was to do away with the taxes on **corn**, was formed in Manchester. The chief leaders of the Anti-Corn-Law League were **Richard Cobden**, **John Bright**, and **Charles Villiers**. These three men went about the country speaking at great meetings, and explaining to the people, in eloquent and clear speeches, how much harm was done to the country by taxing the food of the people.

As was easily to be expected, all those who were owners of land were against the change proposed by the Anti-Corn-Law League. They knew that so long as the corn from abroad was taxed, the price of English corn grown upon their own land would be high. Parliament,



THE QUEEN'S FIRST COUNCIL.

(After the picture by Sir David Wilkie.)

however, could not be persuaded to do away with the corn taxes. **Lord Melbourne** resigned his office in 1841, and **Sir Robert Peel**, who followed him as Prime Minister, at first refused to take away the taxes on corn. He did, however, take away some taxes upon goods brought into this country, for at that time duties had to be paid upon almost everything that was brought in from abroad.

Some people prophesied that the taking off the duties would ruin



SIR ROBERT PEEL.

(From the portrait by Sir Thomas Lawrence.)

the country; but this did not prove to be the case, for, on the contrary, trade improved, and four years later (1845) Sir Robert Peel again took off a very large number of duties. The owners of the land and the farmers now began to be afraid that Peel would end by taking off all the taxes upon corn, and, as it turned out, their fears were well founded. They began to distrust Peel, and under the leadership of **Benjamin Disraeli**, their spokesman, then a young man

who had just entered Parliament, made violent attacks upon the Prime Minister in the House of Commons.

But the readiness of Peel to do away with so many duties had done much to encourage the Anti-Corn-Law League, and day by day a greater number of people throughout the country were led to believe in what the Anti-Corn-Law leaders said. Their task soon became easier, for there was great distress in many parts of England, and

men were actually starving while the price of bread was kept high by the taxes upon corn. Bad as things were in England, they were much worse in **Ireland**. In that part of the United Kingdom the majority of the people lived then, as, indeed, they do now, upon **potatoes**, an uncertain crop, and one which frequently suffers from disease.

In the year 1845 the **Potato blight** fell upon Ireland. Thousands of acres of potatoes were suddenly and utterly destroyed, and in a few weeks Ireland was suffering all the miseries of a great famine. All that could be done was done. A very large amount was spent in relieving the distress. Parliament voted £10,000,000, and very large sums were collected in the form of private charity, to save the starving people; but all that could be done was far too little. Death and disease were everywhere triumphant. Thousands died of actual starvation, or of disease arising from want of food, or from bad food. Greater still was the number of those who were forced to leave their country, which could no longer support them, and to seek a home across the Atlantic, in Canada or in the United States. For miles the countryside was deserted, and ruined houses alone remained to mark where populous villages had been.

In 1841 the population of Ireland was 8,175,124. In 1851 it had sunk to 6,515,794. The want of cheap food in Ireland was plainly even greater than the want of cheap food in England, and at last Sir Robert Peel could no longer refuse to do what he believed to be right and necessary.

At the end of the year 1845 he declared himself in favour of "*repealing the Corn Laws*," that is to say, doing away with the taxes on corn altogether. But though Peel had changed his mind, the other members of his Government were still opposed to the repeal, and Peel was compelled to resign his office; but no one could be found to take his place, and he came back again, supported this time by the Whigs, instead of, as before, by the Tories.

In 1846 a Bill was brought in to do away with the taxes on corn. It passed through both the House of Commons and the House of Lords, and became the law of the land. Within a few years' time all taxes upon bread in any shape were taken away, corn came in freely from abroad, and the price of bread fell lower and lower.

There can be no doubt that the change was a very fortunate one for the greater number of the people of this country, who were able to live better and more cheaply than ever before. At the same time, it must not be forgotten that taking away the taxes on corn was certain in the long run to injure British farmers, who relied upon the sale of their wheat for their profits. In our own day, when wheat

can be grown very cheaply in America, in Russia, in Egypt, and in India, and can be brought swiftly and cheaply across the sea to our markets, it is all but impossible for British farmers to grow wheat and sell it at a profit.

Troubles in the Year "Forty-Eight."

"When bad men combine, the good must associate; else they will fall one by one, an unpitied sacrifice in a contemptible struggle."—Burke:
"Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents."

Although Peel had agreed with Lord Russell and the Whigs for one purpose—that of repealing the Corn Laws—the agreement did not last long. A difference arose between Peel's party and that of Lord Russell, and in 1846 Peel resigned his office and **Lord John Russell** became Prime Minister.

In 1848, two years after the repeal of the Corn Laws, the Chartists, about whom we have already read, once more disturbed the country. They took advantage of the fact that all over Europe, especially in France, risings had taken place in which the people had attacked the Government. In France there had been a revolution, which had ended in King **Louis Philippe** being driven from his throne and a *Republic* being set up.

Nearer home, too, there had been an outbreak. In Ireland a party, called "**The Young Ireland Party**," led by **Smith O'Brien** and others, had risen in arms against the Government, and it had been found necessary to call on the police to put them down. **Feargus O'Connor**, who was still the principal leader of the Chartists, thought that this was a good time to try and gain his ends by violence in England itself. An enormous petition was signed by those who were in favour of the Charter, and nearly 6,000,000 names appeared upon it. It was afterwards found out, however, that many thousands of these were sham names, or names which had been put down without the leave of those to whom they belonged.

The Chartists were ordered to assemble in their thousands on Kennington Common, now called Kennington Park, and near which is the great cricket ground, known as "**Kennington Oval**." The plan was to march in a body to Westminster, to present the Petition, and overawe Parliament by a great show of force. There is, however,

an Act of Parliament which forbids large crowds to assemble or meetings to be held close to Westminster while Parliament is sitting. This is a wise and just law, for it is right that the House of Commons, which has been elected by the people to do the work of the country, should always be able to carry on its debates without the fear of interruption or the threat of violence.

The Government, therefore, forbade the great Chartist procession to come to Westminster. It is one thing, however, to forbid a great body of determined men to do a thing; it is another to prevent them doing it if they have a mind. Clearly, if force were to be used on one side, force would have to be used on the other. A number of soldiers were brought into London under the orders of the **Duke of Wellington**, and placed in houses and courtyards, where they were out of sight, but where they would be useful if they were wanted. It was a good thing to have the soldiers in case of great need, but it is always a pity to call upon armed men to fire upon their fellow-citizens, unless it be absolutely necessary for the safety of the State. The Government, therefore, did a wise thing when they called upon all good citizens who were opposed to violence, and who wished to see the laws of the country made or altered in a lawful way by Parliament, to come forward and resist the Chartists.

A call was made and was soon answered. No less than 200,000 citizens enlisted as "*special constables*." The Chartists were wise enough to see that against such a force as this they were powerless. The great procession which was to frighten Parliament broke up and never reached Westminster, and the great Petition was finally driven down to Westminster in a four-wheeled cab, where it was examined and found to bear not 6,000,000 signatures, but less than 2,000 that were genuine.

Thus ended the Chartist movement. It has proved a useful lesson, because it has shown two things. In the first place, it has shown that in our country changes in the law, if they be wise and reasonable in themselves, will in time be made in a regular and lawful way by Parliament. In the second place, it has shown that the people of England are content to leave the duty of making or altering laws to the free Parliament which they themselves have elected, and that they will not put up with any attempt to change our laws by force and violence.

CHAPTER LXXIV.

THE END OF THE GREAT PEACE AND THE STORY OF
OUR OWN TIMES.

1852-1897.

The Death of the Great Duke.

*"Bury the great Duke
With an Empire's lamentation,
Let us bury the great Duke
To the noise of the mourning of a mighty nation.*

.

*"Mourn for the man of long-enduring blood,
The statesman-warrior, moderate, resolute,
Whole in himself, the common good.*

.

*"Great in council and great in war,
Foremost captain of his time,
Rich in saving common-sense,
And, as the greatest only are,
In his simplicity sublime."—Tennyson.*

IN the year 1851 an event had taken place in France which must be mentioned here, because it had much to do with English history during the next few years. In December, 1851, **Louis Napoleon**, the nephew of Napoleon Buonaparte, had succeeded in making himself "*President*" of the French Republic. To do this he had used great violence, causing the soldiers who obeyed him to shoot down or imprison those who opposed him, and who still wished France to remain a Republic. This violence, however, was altogether successful at the time, and in the very next year, 1852, Louis Napoleon persuaded the French people to declare him *Emperor of the French* under the title of **Napoleon III.**

It was in this year, 1852, that Lord Russell's Ministry came to an end. It was succeeded by a Conservative Ministry, under the **Earl of Derby**, which, however, only lasted a few months. In the same year the **Duke of Wellington** died, mourned by the whole people, who, though they had sometimes disagreed with what he had done as Prime Minister, remembered that he was the man who had saved the country in its time of danger, and who throughout the whole of his long life

had always done his best to serve the nation faithfully and honourably. He was buried with great pomp in the cathedral of St. Paul, where his stately monument may still be seen. A great poet has written a noble poem upon the death of the "Iron Duke." The whole poem should be read, but there is room here for a few lines only, which have been quoted at the beginning of this chapter and on page 709.



THE WELLINGTON MEMORIAL IN ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL.

On the fall of Lord Derby's Ministry in 1852 **Lord Aberdeen** became Prime Minister. **Mr. Gladstone**, who had held other important offices already, and had become one of the foremost members of the House of Commons, became Chancellor of the Exchequer. The Ministry of Lord Aberdeen must be remembered, because it brought with it the end of that long period of peace which Britain had enjoyed for forty years. It was in 1854 that the **Crimean War** began. In this war **Great Britain, France, Sardinia, and Turkey** joined together against **Russia**.

The actual excuse for beginning the war is not now very important. The four allied nations really entered into it for very different reasons. **Turkey** fought against Russia because the Turks and Russians had long been enemies, and the Turks knew that the Russians would drive

them out of Constantinople if they could get a chance. **Great Britain** fought because it was feared in this country that the defeat of Turkey by Russia would make Russia all-powerful in the east of Europe, and would injure British interests in the Mediterranean and in India. It was thought in those days that Turkey might be made strong enough to keep Russia in check.

France fought chiefly because the Emperor Napoleon, who had won his throne by violence, was afraid of losing it, and thought that by making war in alliance with Great Britain he would turn the thoughts of his people to warlike matters, and would lead them to forget their plots against himself. **Sardinia** fought because the clever Minister of the King of Sardinia, **Count Cavour**, wished to show that Sardinia had really got an army which could fight. He also hoped that by winning the support of Great Britain and France he would make powerful friends, who would some day help to make his master King of Italy instead of King of Sardinia. The wise Cavour was not disappointed. **Victor Emmanuel**, the son of Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, was proclaimed *King of Italy* in 1861, and in 1870 the King of Italy entered the palace at Rome as the Sovereign of a united Italian nation.

The Crimean War.

*"Not tho' the soldier knew
Someone had blunder'd;
Their's not to make reply,
Their's not to reason why,
Their's but to do and die."*

Tennyson : "Charge of the Light Brigade."

The story of the war is a long history of mismanagement, suffering, and loss. The allied armies were landed on the Peninsula of the Crimea, in the Black Sea, and a battle was fought on the River **Alma**, September 20th, 1854, in which the allies were victorious. The town of **Sebastopol** lay open and might probably have been taken the next day, but an unwise delay enabled the Russians to fortify the place, and it was made so strong that a regular siege had to be undertaken. The siege lasted eleven months, and during its progress fierce fighting took place under the walls of the fortress. At **Balaclava** the famous charges of the Heavy and Light Cavalry Brigades took place; the Light Cavalry Brigade of 600 men being nearly destroyed by the fire of the Russians.



IN THE TRENCHES BEFORE SEBASTOPOL.

On the 5th November was fought the battle of **Inkerman**, in which some 8,000 British Infantry, fighting in the fog without support and without the hope of help, kept at bay 40,000 Russians. Inkerman has well been called "the soldiers' battle," for never did success depend more upon the valour of the officers and men who fought, and less upon the wisdom and foresight of those who directed the army.

While fighting was going on in the Crimea a fleet was sent up the Baltic, but did little. The big ships drew too much water to be able to move freely in the shallow waters of the Baltic, but for the time the whole of the Russian trade was stopped. An attack upon the Russian possessions in the Pacific by a British squadron was defeated.

Meanwhile the terrible Crimean winter closed in upon the army in front of Sebastopol. The sufferings of the troops from the cold were terrible, and they were made worse by the mismanagement of the Government at home, which had failed to provide the stores and comforts which were required. The French, whose army was much larger than our own, suffered nearly as much as did the British. On both sides the losses were terrible, but the losses in battle were nothing compared to those which were due to cold, starvation, and disease.

At last, at the close of 1855, this unhappy war drew to an end. After a terrific bombardment, an assault upon Sebastopol was ordered. It was only partially successful. The French took the **Malakoff Tower**, the British were defeated in their assault upon the fortification called the **Redan**. But the taking of the Malakoff had made the further defence of Sebastopol impossible, and the Russians at last surrendered. In March, 1856, peace was made. The Russians promised never to bring warships upon the Black Sea, and never to fortify Sebastopol. Both promises have long ago been broken.

It is impossible to look back upon this unhappy war with any feeling of satisfaction. It is said that the losses of the allies amounted in all to no less than 250,000 men, while those of the Russians have been placed as high as 750,000. One thing alone about this war can be remembered with satisfaction, and that is the splendid bravery which was shown by the soldiers and sailors who fought in those fierce battles, and who endured, without a murmur, the hardships and misery of the long siege and of the cruel winter, and the mismanagement of a blundering and unprepared Government.

The Conquest of Scinde and the Indian Mutiny.

"The heroes of whom I have written are only representative men; and rightly considered, it is the glory of the Indian Services, not that they have sent forth a few great, but that they diffused over the country so many good, public officers, eager to do their duty though not in the front rank."—Kaye : *"Lives of Indian Officers."*

Scarcely had the festivities which were held to welcome the returning heroes of the Crimea come to an end, when a fresh call was made upon our army to meet with another and a more terrible danger. This time it was from **India** that the call came, and it was an urgent summons for help from our own kinsmen in the East.

Ever since the days of Clive the power of England in India had been growing greater and greater. In 1843 the great territory known as **Scinde**, which lies in the north-west of India, between the Punjab and Baluchistan, was added to the British dominions. Between 1845 and 1849 were fought the two *Sikh wars*. In 1845 **Sir Hugh Gough** succeeded in defeating the Sikhs, who had crossed the river **Sutlej** and invaded our territory, at the battles of **Ferozeshah** and **Mudki**. In the next year **Sir Harry Smith** was successful in winning the battle of **Aliwal**, and **Gough** that of **Sobraon**. Beaten for a time, the Sikhs were compelled to give up part of their territory. But never had British troops had to fight against a braver enemy in India, and even now the struggle was not ended; indeed, it seemed for a time as though the victory so hardly gained would be lost again.

The **Second Sikh War** broke out in 1848, and **Sir Hugh Gough**¹ was almost defeated in a fierce battle at **Chilianwallah**. One last battle restored the fortune of the war, and by gaining a complete victory at **Gujerat**, **Gough** made the British masters of the whole great Province of the **Punjab**, or district of the "*Five Rivers*," of which **Lahore** is the capital.²

The Sikhs, who had fought so splendidly against us as our enemies, have ever since been among the most loyal subjects of the Queen, and

¹ **Sir Hugh Gough** was made Viscount **Gough** at the close of the second Sikh war.

² The five rivers of the Punjab are the Indus, the Sutlej, the Jhelum, the Chenab, and the Ravi.

have shown, when fighting under British officers, the same splendid bravery and endurance that they showed when fighting against us.

It was fortunate that we had good friends on our side in India at this time, for a great peril was hanging over the British Government, and all those who were friends of British rule in India. It was in the year 1857 that the terrible **Indian Mutiny** broke out. This was a mutiny among the regiments of *Sepoy*, or Hindoo, soldiers, who were at that time in the service of the East India Company. For a long time the outbreak had been plotted and planned, but the British officers refused to believe that the soldiers whom they had commanded so long were on the point of betraying them. Such, however, was the case.

It is said that the immediate cause of the mutiny was the serving out to the Hindoo troops of cartridges which were believed to be greased with cow's fat. Among the Hindoos the cow is held to be a sacred animal, and on no account will a Hindoo who wishes to be true to his religion either kill a cow or allow the meat of cow or bullock to pass his lips. At that time it was necessary to bite off the top of a cartridge before putting its contents into a gun, and thus the lips of the soldiers came in contact with the fat which their religion forbade them to touch. It seems likely, however, that the serving out of the cartridges was rather an excuse for the mutiny than its cause. The plan had been formed long before.

Early in 1857 a native regiment broke out into open mutiny at **Meerut**, and soon in all parts of India other regiments followed the example, murdered their officers, and marched to **Delhi**. Taken by surprise, the Government was at first powerless to protect the lives of English men and women, or to relieve the forts in which those who had been successful in escaping had taken refuge, and were defending themselves.



Cawnpore—Lucknow—Delhi.

"Victoria, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of the Colonies and Dependencies thereof in Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Australasia, Queen, Defender of the Faith,

"WHEREAS for divers weighty reasons, we have resolved, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons in Parliament assembled, to take upon ourselves the government of the territories in India, heretofore administered in trust for us by the Honourable East India Company :

"Now, therefore, we do by these presents notify and declare that, by the advice and consent aforesaid, we have taken upon ourselves the said government, and we hereby call upon all our subjects within the said territories to be faithful and to bear due allegiance to us, our heirs, our successors, and to submit themselves to the authority of those whom we may hereafter from time to time see fit to appoint to administer the government of our said territories, in our name and on our behalf."—From the Queen's Proclamation to the People of India, 1859.

The story of what followed must always be read with deep interest by every English man and woman. It is a story of terrible suffering, of danger, and of death; but it is made bright and splendid by the many instances which it contains of the heroism and the noble courage of men and women of our race. Cut off from all help and from all news of their friends, the small British garrison, aided by bodies of faithful natives, defended themselves, sometimes with no better protection than the walls of an ordinary house, against overwhelming numbers. Very few lost heart; all believed that their countrymen would come to their aid if it were possible, and that, if it were not possible, it was their duty to keep the flag flying to the last, and to die at their posts with their faces to the enemy. In some cases the bravest defence was of no avail, and help came too late.

The British garrison at **Cawnpore**, after having held out for twenty-one days, surrendered to the rebel leader, **Nana Sahib**, when food and ammunition were both exhausted, and after they had received a promise that their lives should be spared. The promise was shamefully broken. Men and women alike were massacred in cold blood, and the bodies thrown into a well; four persons only escaped to tell the story of Cawnpore.

A little to the north-east of Cawnpore lies the great city of **Lucknow**,

and here, too, a British garrison, composed of a few British and some faithful native troops, was shut up with a number of women and children in the Government building, or "*Residency*," of Lucknow. In command was **Sir Henry Lawrence**, one of the wisest and best of the many wise and good men who have left this country to take part in the government of India.

Early in the siege **Lawrence** was struck by a cannon-ball and mortally wounded. The command of the little garrison fell to **Brigadier Inglis**, and what seemed a hopeless struggle went on. The only hope was the arrival of help from outside. At last that help came, when on the eighty-eighth day of the siege **Sir Henry Havelock**, with a small force, fought his way into the Residency. But even now the danger was as great as ever, for the garrison, with the help of the new soldiers whom Havelock had brought, was unable to make its way out in the face of the overwhelming number of the enemy.

At last, after the siege had lasted 141 days, the final relief came. The sound of firing was heard outside the city, and soon the news arrived that a second British force, under **Sir Colin Campbell**, was fighting its way through the streets of Lucknow. Havelock and Sir Colin met amid the ruins of the Residency. This time the force was strong enough to march out through the enemy, and the siege of Lucknow, more fortunate than that of Cawnpore, came to an end.

By this time, indeed, the power of the mutineers was beginning to give way. Troops hurried out from England had begun to make their way up the country, and regiments on their way to China had been wisely stopped at Singapore by the Governor-General, for use in India. Above all, the Sikhs, under the wise government of Sir John Lawrence, brother to Sir Henry Lawrence, had kept true to the British Government, and Lawrence was thus able to send soldiers from Scinde to assist in putting down the mutiny.

On the 20th September, 1857, the great city of **Delhi**, the centre of the mutiny, was taken by the British after a terrible siege, and from that time the fate of the mutineers was sealed.

The British Government rapidly regained its power throughout the country, the mutinous regiments were destroyed or disbanded, and their leaders put to death, and by the end of 1858 British rule was once more firmly established in India. But the terrible danger which had just passed away had taught some very plain lessons, which were not neglected. It was felt by all that the time had come when the government of a mighty country such as India could no longer safely be left in the hands of a private body such as the **East**



THE MEETING OF SIR COLIN CAMPBELL AND SIR HENRY HAVELOCK AT LUCKNOW.
(From the picture by *Thomas J. Barker*).

India Company, and it was decided that the government should be taken from the Company and placed under the Queen and her Ministers.

An Act of Parliament was passed which enabled this to be done, and on the 1st November, 1858, it was declared that the rule of the Company had come to an end, and **Queen Victoria** was proclaimed as the *Sovereign of India*, and the head of its government.¹

The Volunteer Movement.

"Form, form, Riflemen, form !

Ready, be ready to meet the storm !

Riflemen, Riflemen, Riflemen, form."—Tennyson (1859).

From 1855 down to 1858 **Lord Palmerston** had been Prime Minister, but in that latter year he was turned out of office. A man named **Orsini**, an Italian, had made a plot to murder Louis Napoleon, the Emperor of the French, by means of an explosive bomb. The bomb was made by Orsini in England, and was taken over to be used in Paris. The Emperor escaped, but many people lost their lives by the explosion. Orsini himself was captured in Paris, but his plot had been formed in this country, and his accomplices, or those who were believed to be so, were in England. The French demanded that these men should be given up to justice, but many people in England were unwilling that the accused should fall into the hands of Louis Napoleon, whom they believed to be a usurper and a tyrant.

As a matter of fact, the law of England, as it then stood, did not allow the Government to give up the persons charged with helping Orsini. Lord Palmerston declared that if there were no law allowing him to do so, such a law ought to be passed, for he said that it was an intolerable thing that men should be allowed to plot and contrive murder in this country, should carry out their intentions against the ruler of a friendly state, and should then be able to find a refuge in England.

But the feeling against handing over the accused persons was so great that, despite the anger of the French Emperor and the French people, and despite the advice of Lord Palmerston, the House of Commons refused point-blank to pass the new law, and Lord Palmerston was

¹ In 1876, by a further Proclamation, the Queen took the further title of *Empress of India*, and whenever Queen Victoria signs her name on any official paper which has to do with matters outside the United Kingdom, she signs it "V.R. & I.," meaning *Victoria, Regina et Imperatrix*, the translation of these Latin words being "VICTORIA, QUEEN AND EMPRESS" (of India).



READING THE QUEEN'S PROCLAMATION 1858.

forced to resign office. But not for long. He was succeeded by **Lord Derby**, under whom was **Benjamin Disraeli** as Chancellor of the Exchequer. The new Ministry had no strength, and in the following year **Lord Palmerston** came back to office again as Prime Minister. It was fortunate that he had come back, for this was a time of danger and trouble in Europe, and no one knew better than Lord Palmerston how to pilot the country through the danger which threatened it.

Among these dangers the most serious was the ill-feeling which had grown up in France against this country. So serious did this danger seem that it was felt by all that some special steps must be taken to guard against the danger of invasion. The French army was then, as it is now, much larger than the British army, and it was better prepared for war. It was therefore proposed that "*Volunteers*" should be enrolled in Great Britain and formed into regiments, ready to resist the French if they came. This was the beginning of what is called the "*Volunteer Movement*." The plan found great favour among all classes, and soon thousands of men came forward and set to work to learn something of drill and the use of the rifle. Ever since the year 1859 the Volunteers have been growing stronger and better prepared.

The Civil War in the United States—The "Alabama" —The Geneva Award.

"It follows from these views, that no State, upon its own mere motion, can lawfully get out of the Union; that resolves and ordinances to that effect are legally void; and that acts of violence within any State or States, against the authority of the United States, are insurrectionary or revolutionary according to circumstances."

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"I hold that in the contemplation of universal law and of the constitution, the union of these States is perpetual."—President Lincoln at the beginning of the Civil War.

In 1861 began the great civil war in the United States between the North and the South. The story of that war cannot be told here. It was a terrible struggle, which for a time seemed likely to break up the Union of the States, but which ended in making that Union stronger than ever. The quarrel first began upon the question of how far the United States as a whole had the right to interfere with the affairs of any particular State in the Union. Some of the States



SOME OF THE FIRST VOLUNTEERS IN 1860.

declared that they were too much interfered with, and that they would separate, or *secede*, from the Union rather than give in. The Government and the people of the Northern States said that they would not allow the Union to be broken up, and they fought for their opinions.

But before the war was over it was clear to all that the real question which must be decided was whether *slavery* should be allowed to continue in the United States, or whether it should be done away with.

Happily, the North, who were in favour of freeing the slaves, won the day, after a struggle which lasted for nearly five years, and slavery has now long ceased to exist in the United States. But though the war took place in a distant and foreign country, it made a very great difference to this country, and for that reason something more must be said about it. In the first place, it nearly brought about a great misfortune to this country, for it all but led to a war between the United Kingdom and the United States.

There were two things which nearly led to a quarrel. The first was the action of a captain of a United States man-of-war on the Northern, or *Federal*,¹ side, who stopped a British mail-steamer, called the *Trent*, by force and took out of her two messengers who had been sent on her by the orders of the Southern, or Confederate, Government. This was a thing which could not possibly be allowed, for clearly it would be impossible to permit foreign ships of war to treat our ships as if they belonged to them, or as if they belonged to an enemy. A request was made to the United States Government that the two men who had been taken should be given up again, and happily wise counsels gained the day.

Abraham Lincoln, who was at that time President of the United States, was a wise and great man. He knew that the act of his officer was not a right one, and could not be defended, and he therefore gave orders that **Mason** and **Slidell**, the two Southerners who had been taken out of the *Trent*, should be delivered up again to the British Government. This was done, and all danger was for the time averted.

A second danger, however, arose, which threatened at one time to prove even more serious than the first. It was more serious because this time it was Great Britain that seemed to be in the wrong. It happened that the South were very anxious to obtain ships of war with which to fight the North and destroy the Northern merchant ships. The Southerners could not build the ships themselves, and so they sent over to England and ordered them to be built there. The ships were built secretly, those who knew what they were intended for

¹ The Northerners were known as "Federal," the Southerners as "Confederates."

keeping their secret very well. Even the British Government had no idea that the ships were being prepared to make war upon the North. If they had known, it would have been their duty to stop the ships, and prevent their leaving the country, for it is not allowed for one country to furnish weapons of war to another for the purpose of being used against a friendly country.

At last, however, the secret began to leak out, and the British Government were warned that one of the ships, known as the *Alabama*, was about to sail from Liverpool, and was to be used as a warship as soon as she had taken on board her guns and gunpowder. Directly the officers of the Government knew what was taking place they sent off post-haste to stop the ship; but they were too late—the *Alabama* had sailed, and the mischief was done. It turned out that the mischief was very serious, for the *Alabama* proved to be a dangerous ship to the North; and, though she was at last caught and sunk by a Federal man-of-war, it was not until she had herself captured or destroyed many hundreds of merchant vessels belonging to the North.

Besides the *Alabama* there were four other vessels which it was said had either come from British ports, or had been allowed to use such ports improperly while fighting against the North. The best known of these ships were the *Florida* and *Shenandoah*. The Northerners were furious when they saw the mischief that was done to their commerce, and they hastened to lay the whole blame upon this country, and to claim from England damages for the loss which their country suffered.

As a matter of fact, whatever had been done by the ships had been done against the will of the British Government, if they had escaped it was only by an accident, and there were many in this country who thought that the United States had no just claim at all upon us. As long as this matter remained unsettled there was always danger of a quarrel between the two great English-speaking countries; and it was, therefore, a matter which we all ought to feel thankful for that the question was settled without bloodshed. In the year 1871, six years after the war in America was over, the British Government agreed to submit a part of the claims made by the United States to be judged or arbitrated upon by certain persons chosen for the purpose, and who were supposed to be equally fair to both sides.

The arbitration took place at **Geneva**, in Switzerland, and lasted a long time. The case for this country and that for the United States were carefully stated by lawyers on either side. At last the decision was given, and unfortunately it was against this country. The arbitrators declared that, although we had not desired to let the ships go, we had not taken sufficient care to prevent their going, and that therefore we

must answer for the consequences. Their judgment was that England should pay to the United States the sum of £3,229,166 13s. 4d.

This amount was accordingly paid over, and thus the dispute was settled. It is a very fortunate thing that two great countries such as Britain and the United States should have been the first to set the example to the world, and to show that even serious disputes may sometimes be far better settled by reason and argument than by force of arms.

The Cotton Famine.

"Therefore all things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them."—*Matthew vii. 12.*

Besides the difficulty which arose out of the matter of the steamship *Trent*, and that which followed the escape of the *Alabama*, a third trouble arose out of the American Civil War which had a very terrible effect on England. The whole of the **cotton** which was used in the mills of Lancashire came in the year 1861 from the Southern States of the Union, chiefly from **Alabama** and **Tennessee**. Before the war had been going on very long, the North set to work to blockade, or shut up, all the harbours of the Southern States. They declared these harbours to be "*blockaded*," and forbade ships of any kind to go in or out of them. A few ships did succeed in passing in or out, "*running the blockade*," as it was called; but most of the ships which made the attempt were captured by the Northern men-of-war.

The consequence was that the ships bringing cotton ceased to arrive at Liverpool; and there being no cotton, the cotton mills had to be stopped; and thousands of men, women and children who were employed in them were thrown out of work. Soon there was very great distress, and even starvation, in **Lancashire**. Money was collected in all parts of the United Kingdom to help the poor Lancashire work-people, who were suffering from no fault of their own.

But though as much as £3,000,000 was collected, this was not nearly enough to provide for the wants of the thousands who were out of work. As long as the war lasted the distress in Lancashire was very great indeed; and it was not till the end of the war, when the North had gained a complete victory over the South, that the supply of cotton began again, and the mills could once more be opened.

But though the story of the Lancashire cotton famine is a very sad one, there is a bright side to it, which should never be forgotten. There were many people in this country who wished the British Government to take sides with the Southern States, or, at any rate, to declare that they had become a separate nation and ought to be treated as such. If either of these things had happened, there can be no doubt that the blockade of the Southern harbours would have been put to an end at once, the cotton would have come over as freely as before, and the "**Cotton Famine**" would have been at an end.

If the people in the great county of Lancashire had united to make the Government take sides with the South, most likely the Government would have been forced to take such a step. But the work-people of Lancashire took a very noble part. They believed that the Northerners were in the right, and that they were fighting to put down the hateful cause of slavery; and so, though their own interests would have been served if Great Britain had helped the South, they never changed their mind, but all through the war, and all through the time of suffering which the war caused, they remained true to what they believed to be the right. What Lancashire did at this time ought not to be forgotten, either by Lancashire men or by any of their fellow-countrymen.

And now we are coming very close to the days in which we live, days which have scarcely gone by long enough to take their place in "history." But a word or two must be said about them, so as to bring the story which is told in this book down to the time when those who read it were born.

Our Own Times.

"Our purpose in this Bill is briefly this, to bring Elementary Education within the reach of every English home, aye, and within the reach of those children who have no homes. This is what we aim at in this Bill; and this is what I believe this Bill will do."—Speech of Mr. W. E. Forster when bringing in the Education Bill, 1870.

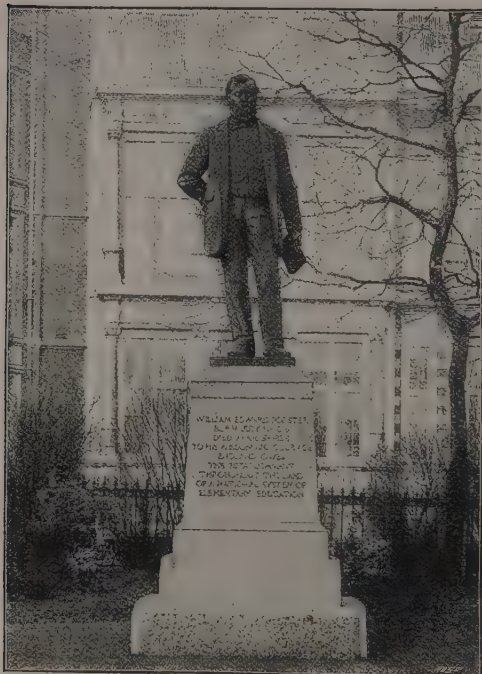
In 1865 **Lord Palmerston** died, at the age of 80, and **Lord Russell** became Prime Minister in his place. The very next year Lord Russell had to make way for **Lord Derby**, who, as before, chose for the Chancellor of the Exchequer **Benjamin Disraeli**. It was during the Ministry of Lord Derby that a second great "**Reform Bill**" was passed, which gave

to a great many people who had never had votes before the right to vote for Members of Parliament.

In 1867 an attempt was made by the members of an Irish Secret Society, known as the "*Fenians*," to start an insurrection in Ireland. A great many of the Fenians were soldiers of Irish birth who had

fought in the American Civil War. The police, however, were well informed about the plot; some of the leaders were taken away prisoners, others escaped, and the insurrection came to nothing.

In 1868 **Mr. Gladstone** became Prime Minister for the first time, and remained in office till 1874. During this time two Acts of Parliament were passed which must be remembered. The first is the *Education Act*, the second the *Ballot Act*. Both Bills were brought in by **Mr. W. E. Forster**. It was the **Education Act** of 1870 which led to *School Boards* being set up in a great many places, and to all children being



STATUE OF WILLIAM EDWARD FORSTER IN FRONT OF
THE LONDON SCHOOL BOARD.

compelled to go to school. Other countries had already found out how great an advantage it was for the whole people to be properly educated, and both in France and Germany children were compelled to go to school as a matter of course. We have now learnt the same lesson in our own country, and it is the law that all children must either be properly educated at home or be sent to school. By another law, which was passed in the year 1891, all parents were

given the right to have their children's schooling free if they so desired.

By the **Ballot Act** the manner of giving votes in elections to Parliament was altered. Before 1872 all votes were given openly, and it was thus known which way any man voted. It was therefore possible for badly-disposed persons to punish voters for giving their votes in a particular way. By the Ballot Act all voting was made *secret*, and now after an election nobody knows for certain which way a particular man has voted. The new plan has helped to prevent voters being bribed or threatened, for it is no use bribing a man if you can never be sure whether, after taking the bribe, he has not voted the other way after all; nor is it any use threatening a man for the use he makes of his vote when you can never be certain how he has used it.

In 1874 **Mr. Disraeli** became Prime Minister, and governed the country for six years. It was in these years that wars took place in **Afghanistan**, and in **Zulu-land**, in South Africa. The Republic of the **Transvaal**, in South Africa, and the island of **Cyprus** were annexed to the British Empire.

In 1880 Mr. Gladstone, in his turn, turned out Mr. Disraeli.¹ Mr. Gladstone remained in office for five years. During this time the

country was seldom free from war. In 1880 the **Boers of the Transvaal** rose in rebellion. The British troops sent against them were defeated, and our Government at once surrendered, and gave up the Transvaal.

¹ Mr. Disraeli was in 1876 summoned to the House of Lords as Lord Beaconsfield. He died April 19, 1881.



GENERAL GORDON.
(Statue by Hamo Thornycroft, R.A.,
in Trafalgar Square).

It has not been usual for a British Government to give in directly its soldiers are beaten, and though there were some who approved of what had been done, there were many who strongly condemned it.

In 1882 a British expedition was sent to **Egypt** to put down the army of **Arabi Pasha**, who had risen in revolt against the Khedive of Egypt, who was our ally. The forts of **Alexandria** were bombarded by the British fleet, and a great part of the city of Alexandria was, unluckily, burnt by a riotous mob before troops could be landed to keep order. Arabi was defeated at the battle of **Tel-el-Kebir**, and was taken prisoner.

There was much savage fighting in Egypt after this, owing to the attempt of an Arab chief, who called himself the "**Mahdi**," to invade the country. **General Gordon**, a gallant and noble soldier, was sent to **Khartoum**, on the river Nile, and was there besieged by the followers of the Mahdi. After a long delay, British troops were sent to rescue him, but they arrived too late, only to find that Khartoum had fallen and General Gordon been murdered.

The political history of the next few years is chiefly concerned with what is known as the Irish **Home Rule** agitation. A large party in Ireland desired to establish a separate parliament in Dublin, and in 1885, Mr. Gladstone, who had hitherto not been in favour of Home Rule, declared himself to be one of its supporters. He was followed in his change of politics by many members of the Liberal party in Parliament, and in 1886 a Home Rule Bill was brought into the House of Commons; it was defeated by a majority of 30. In the new Parliament elected in the same year, the Unionists, or opponents of Home Rule, with **Lord Salisbury** as Prime Minister, were in a large majority. Six years later (1892), however, after another general election, Mr. Gladstone was once more returned to power, and in 1893 introduced a **second Home Rule Bill**, which passed the House of Commons by a majority of 34 votes on the 2nd of September, but was rejected by the House of Lords. **Mr. Gladstone** himself retired from politics in 1894, and **Lord Rosebery** was for a short time Prime Minister, but in 1895 he was compelled to resign. Parliament was dissolved and the elections gave a majority of 152 Unionists, and **Lord Salisbury** again became Prime Minister.

In 1887 the "**Jubilee**," or fiftieth year, of the Queen's reign was celebrated. In January, 1892, the **Duke of Clarence**, eldest son of the Prince of Wales and heir to the throne, died. In 1897 the **sixtieth year** of the reign of Queen Victoria was celebrated with great rejoicing throughout the whole of the British Empire.

CHAPTER LXXV.

THE CONQUESTS OF PEACE.

The Australian Colonies and South Africa.

*"Sea-king and Sage: staunch huntsman of pure fame,
Beating the waste of waters for his game,
Untrodden shores of tribes without a name,
That nothing in an island's shape,
Mist-muffled peak, or faint cloud-cape,
Might his determined thoughtful glance escape
No virgin lands he left unknown,
Where future Englands might be sown,
And nations noble as his own."*

A. Domett: "Ranolf and Amohia."

MUCH of this book has been taken up in describing the way in which great portions of our Empire have been won and kept by the expenditure of the blood and wealth of our countrymen; but we must not forget that there are parts of our Empire as great and as important as those of which we have spoken, which have been won wholly or to a great extent without shedding of blood, and without a war against any European Power.

First and foremost of all must be named the great **Australasian Colonies**. It is not without reason that Australians love to honour the name of **Captain Cook**. It was he who, sailing in the South Pacific in 1769, sighted **New Zealand**, and next year landed in **New Holland**, now known as **New South Wales**. It was he who, a year or two later, discovered **New Caledonia**, and in 1778 the **Sandwich Islands**. Finally he met with his death at the hands of the natives of **Hawaii**, one of the **Sandwich Islands**.

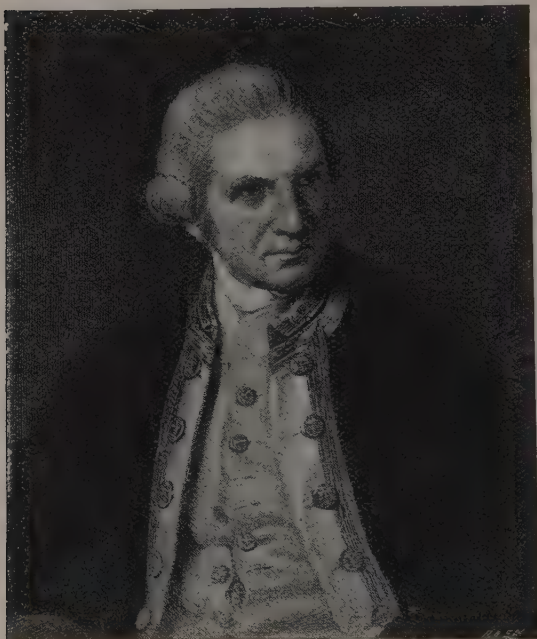
From the days of Captain Cook the Australasian Colonies have grown—first slowly and of late rapidly. Their early years were darkened by the fact that they were made *Penal Stations* for convicts sent from this country, and **Botany Bay**, one of the most lovely spots in New South Wales, earned an unhappy fame on account of the convict station established near it. In the year 1868, however, the sending of convicts to most of the Australasian Colonies was discontinued, and

since that date it has been given up altogether. From that time forward the progress of the Colonies has been steady.

New South Wales, the oldest of them all, dates its history from its first settlement by **Captain Phillip**, who chose the position of the present capital of **Sydney**. **Tasmania**, formerly known as "**Van Dieman's Land**," had been discovered as far back as 1642 by

Tasman, a Dutchman; but it was not till 1804 that the first Governor was sent out to this beautiful island, and **Hobart Town**, its capital, now called **Hobart**, founded.

The rights of Britain to **New Zealand** were recognised in 1840, and the islands were placed under the Government of **New South Wales**. It was not till 1852 that a separate **New Zealand** Parliament was formed. **Victoria**, like **New Zealand**, was considered for many years a part of the



CAPTAIN COOK.

(From the original portrait by Dance in the Gallery of Greenwich Hospital.)

Colony of **New South Wales**. It was not till 1851 that it received its present name, and became independent; and now, with its immense capital of **Melbourne**, it is one of the richest though not one of the largest of the Australian Colonies. **South Australia**, the great territory which, oddly enough, contains almost the northern point of Australia,¹ became a Colony in 1836. The remaining Australian

¹ Cape Wessel.

Colonies, though they are already important States, are of very recent origin. **Queensland** may be said to date from 1860; **Western Australia** is older. The outlying **Fiji Islands**, which now have their own Governor, were annexed to the Empire in 1874.

In Africa, the **Cape Colony**, as we have already read, was captured by British arms; but the great tracts of British territory in South Africa are in a large measure due to the energy and enterprise of British explorers. **Natal** was annexed in 1843. **Zululand** has since been added to it. The great stretch of territory between the northern frontier of Cape Colony and the southern end of Lake Tanganyika have now been added, under one form or another, to the British Dominions, with the exception of two patches marked on the map as the "**Orange Free State**" and the "**Transvaal**"; in both of these districts the Government is still in the hands of the *Dutch*, or *Boers*, who in the Transvaal form but a small minority of the population.

On the east coast, the island of **Zanzibar** and a large portion of the mainland, known as "**British East Africa**," have come under our rule, while our original possessions on the west coast, especially on the **River Niger**, have been greatly increased. A portion of the island of **Borneo** now belongs to a British Company, while **Singapore** and **Hong Kong**, two of the most important British possessions in Eastern Asia, have become ours by treaty—the former in 1824 and the latter in 1842.

The British Empire.

*"Sharers of our glorious past,
 Brothers, must we part at last?
 Shall we not thro' good and ill
 Cleave to one another still?
 Britain's myriad voices call,
 Sons, be welded each and all
 Into one Imperial whole,
 One with Britain, heart and soul!
 One life, one flag, one fleet, one Throne!
 Britons, hold your own!"—Tennyson.*

It is well to consider for a moment what this "**British Empire**," of which we have spoken so often, really is at the present day. It is true to say that nothing like it has ever been known before in the

history of the world. It covers an area of no less than 11,334,391 square miles; its population is no less than 382,612,448.

But these figures in themselves tell us little. It is neither the area over which it extends, nor the number of people whom it contains, that gives to the British Empire such strength as it possesses. It is sometimes necessary to *weigh* as well as to *count*. But when we come to weigh as well as to count, the greatness of the opportunity which has been given to British citizens appears more plainly than ever.

If we look at a map of the world we shall see that by far the greater part of the "*temperate regions*" of the earth outside Europe are within the limits of the British Empire. The British Islands themselves, the centre of the whole, are situated in a latitude (50° to 59° N.) which is so far north that in a less favoured part of the globe they would be in the region of almost Arctic ice. Lying in the warm current of the Gulf Stream, and washed by the waters of the Atlantic, they enjoy a climate in which, with all its disadvantages, the work of man can be carried on by a hardy and industrious race with a vigour and a freedom from interruption not excelled in any other country.

Canada, though exposed to the rigours of a severe winter, is a land in which men of white race can work and live and thrive. The great island continent of **Australia** is so large that although its southern portion extends into the Temperate Zone, it reaches in the north up into the half-tropical heat of the 11th parallel. But throughout nearly all the inhabited portions of Australia, in the lovely islands of **New Zealand**, and the scarcely less lovely island of **Tasmania**, men of European race can live and work without any great change in their habits or ways of living. In **South Africa**, where men of British race are pouring in by thousands, the same thing is to a very large extent true; and though the presence of a large native population makes life very different in some respects from what it is in Europe, there seems no reason to believe that the growing nation which is fast springing up is likely to lose the qualities which it has inherited from the old country, but that, on the contrary, it is in a fair way to become one of the strongest and most stirring branches of the great Anglo-Saxon family.

And it must be remembered that all these men of British stock are truly of one race, speaking one language, and one and all proud, and justly proud, of the famous history of the powerful and ancient land from which they all alike have sprung.

But this is not all that makes up the strength of the British

Empire. Within its borders there are at this day more than *fifty millions* of men and women of British race speaking English as their native tongue. This, above all and before all, is the true strength of the Empire. But there are other things which in a lesser degree help to make it strong. It has been said of Britannia that

" Her march is o'er the mountain waves,
Her home is on the deep."

And the same thing is true, almost in the same degree, of the great Empire which is bound together by the waters of the sea, which now unite, and no longer divide widely-separated shores.

Let us once more look at the map, and learn the lesson which it teaches us. It tells us in very plain language that *the gates of the pathways of the seas* are in the possession of men of British race, and citizens of the British Empire. Look at the names, and mark how the places they represent stand sentinel on all the great ocean highways. **Gibraltar, Malta, Aden, Perim, Colombo**, on the road to India and the East; **Singapore** and **Hong Kong**, still further to the East. **Port Darwin**, on the north of Australia, **King George's Sound** on the south, secure the road to the Southern Pacific. Again turn westward, and there mark where **Halifax, Bermuda**, and the **West Indian Colonies** knit together the transatlantic territories of the oldest and most widely extended of all the States of America, joining **Canada** on the north, with **British Guiana** on the south. Lastly, note how the remote **Falkland Islands** keep watch over the road which leads round Cape Horn; and how the harbours of **Vancouver** and **Esquimaux** in British Columbia protect the end of the great *Canadian Pacific Railway*, and display the flag of our Empire upon the North Pacific Ocean. When we have noticed these things, and understand how much they mean, we shall know what is meant by saying that "*The Gates of the pathways of the sea are in the hands of the British race.*"

But even this is not all that can be said of the great inheritance to which every subject of the Queen is born an heir. Mark where the huge peninsula of **India** lies bathed in the warm waves of the Indian Ocean.

That great peninsula, with its rich products, its teeming population, its wonderful history, is governed from end to end—from the snowy Himalayas, which encircle and protect it on the north, down to the southern extremity where Cape Comorin stretches into the Indian Ocean—by men of British race. The right and the power to govern

India wisely, honourably, and well, is one of the privileges in which every one of the Queen's subjects has the right to take his share.

Such is, then, the great Empire to which we belong. To-day it stands firm, and fair, the envy of all the world. But who can say how long it will stand as it does to-day? Whether it stand or fall will depend upon the wisdom and courage of the British race. If we stand together, no power in the world is strong enough to overthrow such an Empire. But if we do not stand together, if every part of the Empire thinks it is strong enough to get on by itself, and cares nothing for the welfare of the whole, then, indeed, it is certain that, great and splendid as our Empire is, it will before long break up and be destroyed, and the greatest opportunity that ever was given to any people since the world began will be thrown away, never to be recovered.

There is an ancient story, one of the famous fables of Æsop, which tells how a young man, being set to break a bundle of faggots, at last gave up the task in despair, and came to ask advice of one wiser than himself as to how he should accomplish the task. And this was the counsel that his friend gave him: "United," said he, "the sticks which compose the faggot will never yield to your efforts; do but untie the string which binds them together, and then nothing will be easier than to break each separate stick at your leisure, and your task will soon be accomplished." The young man took the advice that was given him, and in a trice what had before seemed too firm and strong for the most powerful man to destroy, was broken into pieces with ease when once the bond of union was taken away.

And this story supplies a lesson which may be learnt, and ought to be learnt, by every Briton, wherever he lives, throughout the Empire. The United Kingdom is a great country; Canada is a great country; Australia and New Zealand are great countries; South Africa is, or is likely to become, a great country also; but not one of these countries can ever be as great or as powerful when standing alone as they might be, may be, if they choose to stand as parts of the great British Empire. There are plenty of people, enemies of our country, who would rejoice to see the bundle of faggots unbound, and each stick composing it broken and cast aside.

But if those who belong to the Empire, wherever they live throughout the world, are determined not only that the bond of union shall never be broken, but that, on the contrary, it shall be drawn much closer, and made still stronger than it now is; then,

beyond doubt, the future of our race will be not less great and glorious than its past has been. When once that union has been made sure and strong, then indeed the British Empire will be able to face the world without fear, and safe from all danger of attack, and will be able to grow in peace under the free institutions and just laws which many generations of Britons have won and maintained.

CHAPTER LXXVI.

STEPS ON THE PATH OF FREEDOM.

The Growing Giant.

*"A land of settled government,
A land of old and just renown;
Where freedom slowly broadens down
From precedent to precedent."—Tennyson.*

IN the chapters which have gone before, we have learnt something of the order in which the principal events in the history of our country took place between the date of the accession of George I. and the present time. We have read a great deal about wars by sea and by land, about treaties and peaces, and about the doings of great statesmen and great soldiers. It must not be supposed, however, that such things as these make up the history of a great country like our own, or, indeed, of any country.

It is true that the wars which went on almost continuously between 1714 and 1815 were of the greatest possible importance to the United Kingdom, and, indeed, to the whole of what is now the British Empire. During those hundred years the foundations of the **British Empire** as we now know it were laid and firmly established. Seldom has a nation run greater risks than were incurred by our country during that time of war, and seldom has a nation gained more by war than was gained by the United Kingdom during the long struggle which came to an end in 1815.

But in that year, happily, war ceased, and the country enjoyed

forty years of almost undisturbed peace. During those years, and the forty years which followed, very great changes were made or begun in this country which are of the greatest possible importance to all of us who now live in it.

It is not easy to describe all these great changes in a word or in a sentence, but if one were called upon to describe them very shortly it would be true to say that they were nearly all of them *Steps on the path of Freedom*. This may seem rather a hard sentence to understand, but its meaning can easily be made clear. It was no new thing that the English people should advance along the path of freedom. In an earlier part of this book we read how the **Barons** of England won **Magna Charta** from King John, and thus took a great step to free the people from unjust government on the part of its kings. We read how **Simon de Montfort** took another step by giving us a **Parliament** which, though not always as free as our own Parliament is at the present day, was through the whole of its long life at all times the freest and greatest assembly in the world.

The **Reformation** and the changes which followed it did something towards giving us freedom in matters of **religion**, and allowing people to think and believe what they pleased. But much more still remained to be done before this freedom was really won.

The **Civil War**, and the **Revolution** which placed William III. upon the throne, freed us from the **tyranny of kings**. And, indeed, in many other ways each century of our history has brought with it some fresh liberty, and though freedom came little by little, the cause of freedom always grew stronger. It would be a great mistake to blame or think ill of our forefathers because their ideas of what people ought to be allowed to do were not exactly the same as our own. A nation grows as a man grows, and what is wise and proper for the child is quite unsuitable for a grown-up man.

The people of England kept growing and stretching like a young giant, and as it grew, its old clothes—the old laws which had fitted it well enough in its youth—became tight and oppressive, and the healthy young giant began to push through them at knees and elbows. Sometimes a little patching was enough, but after a time patching would serve no longer, and a new suit, roomier and easier than the old one, had to be furnished.

But though the growth of English freedom had gone steadily on for hundreds of years, it must be confessed that during part of the time about which we have been reading in this book, there seemed to be a stoppage, and as if all hope of gaining more liberty had come to an end. The time when this stoppage seemed to take place was that

which was occupied by the great wars which followed the outbreak of the **French Revolution** in 1789.

The French Revolution and British Freedom.

"We Englishmen stop very short of the principles upon which we support any given part of our Constitution: or even the whole of it together . . . But although there are some amongst us who think our Constitution wants many improvements to make it a complete system of liberty, perhaps none who are of that opinion would think it right to aim at such improvements by disturbing his country and risking everything that is dear to him."—Burke: *Speech on Conciliation with America*, p. 110.

It is not hard to understand why this stoppage should have taken place. There were really two very good reasons for it. In the first place the war itself furnished a reason. There is an American proverb which says, "It is ill to change horses whilst crossing a stream." And indeed it is quite true that though a man who is fording a stream may have a bad mount, he will be wise if he waits till he gets to the other side before he changes it. And so it was with Britain. There were very many wise and clear-sighted men in the country who knew well that the nation had gone on growing while its laws and liberties had not grown, and who were quite willing, and indeed anxious, to improve the laws and to extend the liberties of the country.

But what they thought and what they said was: "Not now; there is a time for everything, but not for everything at the same time. Our country is fighting for its life: our first business is to win, and to free the country from the greatest danger of all—that of conquest by a foreign nation." It was *Freedom*, after all, that they were fighting for. They knew well enough that if once the freedom of this country upon the sea and within her own borders were taken away, there would be an end of all chance of improving the laws, or, indeed, of living an honourable life under existing laws. Therefore they said, "Changes in the law are no doubt needed, but they must wait."

There was another reason, too, which for a time checked the advance of freedom. The people of France, or some of them, had declared that they, and they alone of all the peoples of Europe, knew what freedom meant, and that their way of getting it and enjoying it was the only right way. When, however, the people of England began

to see that in spite of all the fine words which were used about it, freedom, as understood by the French at that time, meant plunder, and civil war, and lawlessness and cruelty at home, and that it meant endless war and conquest abroad; when, too, they learnt, as they did a little later, that all this fine talk about freedom was to end in the triumph of a soldier who had made himself absolute master of France, and ruled half Europe with the bayonet, they began to distrust and fear the very name of freedom which seemed to bring nothing but misery and tyranny in its train. Luckily, freedom may be won by other means, and may be used in other ways very different from those which found favour in France at the time of the Revolution.

When we think of these things, it is hard to blame our ancestors for not going quite so fast as we have done since. But though there may have been a good reason for going slowly for a time, it must not be supposed for a moment that the nation was not growing. On the contrary, it was growing very fast, and never did the old clothes seem tighter, and more inconvenient, and more old-fashioned than when peace came in 1815, and allowed the Government once more to turn its attention to matters at home. It was indeed time that they should do so, for already the discontent and distress which had so long been kept under had become very serious.

And now let us see what were the new steps on the path of freedom which were taken between the year 1815 and our own time. Here is a short list of the most important steps:—

1. Freedom of the individual.
 - (a) The emancipation of the slaves.
 - (b) The freedom of workmen from excessive work.
2. Freedom of thought and religious opinion.
3. Freedom and extension of communication.
4. Freedom of the press.
5. Freedom of trade and commerce.
6. Freedom of Parliamentary voting.

Freedom of the Individual : the Abolition of Slavery and the Slave Trade.

"That execrable sum of all villainies commonly called a Slave Trade."
 —John Wesley : *Journal*.

There are many kinds of freedom, but the most important of all, the one which must come first to our minds, is the right of a man or a

woman to be free from interference with his or her right to live, and move, and act. It is proper, therefore, that in speaking of the freedom which the last hundred years brought with it, to put first and foremost the release of men and women from *slavery*.

Long ago **slavery** had come to an end as far as Englishmen were concerned. It was not till the year 1772, when George III. was king, that it was declared that the law of England forbade anyone to be kept as a slave within the United Kingdom. In that year the famous case of the negro **Somerset** was decided. A negro slave named Somerset was turned out in the streets by his master because he was ill and unable to work. The slave was found almost dead in the streets by a Mr. Granville Sharp, who, being a kind and humane man, had him taken to the hospital, and found a situation for him when he got well. Two years afterwards Somerset's old master met him, and at once told a policeman to put him into prison as a runaway slave.

"He is my property," said the master, "and no one has any more right to take him away than they have to take my hat or coat." Mr. Sharp and the master went to law to settle their dispute, and the Lord Mayor of London, who had to try the case, at once declared that Somerset was free, and that his old master had no right to claim him. The matter did not end there. The master, in defiance of the Lord Mayor, tried to carry off Somerset again, and at last the whole matter came before the judges. It was then that Lord Mansfield, speaking on behalf of twelve of the judges, declared that by the law of England *a man became free the moment he touched our shores*. This put an end to slavery in England for ever. It is now true to say, in the words of the poet:

"Slaves cannot breathe in England ; if their lungs
Receive our air, that moment they are free ;
They touch our country, and their shackles fall."¹

But more than this had to be done before Britain could be free from the blame of encouraging and allowing slavery. The next thing to be done after freeing the slaves in England was to stop the trade in slaves. This cruel and hateful trade was carried on between Africa on the one hand and North and South America and the West Indies on the other. Negroes dragged from their home by parties of armed men were crowded into the slave ships and carried across the Atlantic. Many died on the way from the overcrowding of the ships and ill-treatment. Those who were safely landed were sold as slaves to work on the sugar and cotton plantations.

¹ Cowper,

Towards the end of the last century two or three noble-minded men took the lead in trying to get the Government to declare the slave trade illegal. The chief among them were **William Wilberforce**, **Thomas Clarkson**, and **Zachary Macaulay**, father of Lord Macaulay, whose name is so well known. The chief supporters of Clarkson, Wilberforce, and Macaulay were the members of the **Society of Friends**, commonly known as the "*Quakers*," who were foremost in this and in many other good works.

It was not till the year 1805, however, the year in which the battle of Trafalgar was fought, that the British Government issued its first order against the slave trade. Two years later a second order was issued stricter than the first, which forbade slaves to be taken to any British possession, and orders were given to British warships to capture all vessels which they found disobeying the order.

It was a great thing to have stopped the slave trade, but something more remained to be done, for in the British Colonies and West Indies, and on the American coast, thousands of negroes were still held as slaves by British masters. For many years the followers of Wilberforce and Clarkson did their best to persuade the Government to do away with slavery in every part of the British Empire. The part which had been taken by Clarkson and Wilberforce was now taken by **Sir Fowell Buxton** and others. It was not, however, till the year 1838, in the reign of Queen Victoria, that an Act of Parliament was passed doing away with slavery in the West India Islands altogether and setting free all the slaves.

One thing deserves to be specially remembered when we read of the freeing of the slaves. Up to that time the slaves had been the property of their masters, and had been bought and sold just like cattle or any other kind of possession. Large sums had been spent in purchasing them, and it was clear that if they were all set free at once, without any payment being made to the masters, the latter would be ruined. Some people said that it was not necessary to pay the masters anything, that it was wrong to keep slaves, and that it would be a mistake to pay men who had been doing what was wrong.

But Parliament and the majority of the people were wiser and more honest than those who spoke in this way. They said, "The masters have only done what the law allowed them to do. If, when the law is altered, they break it, they will deserve to be punished; but it will be most unfair to punish them if they have not broken the law." And so it was decided to pay a large sum out of the taxes—no less than £20,000,000—to the masters who had been suddenly deprived of their property.

This was honest and right, for if any other plan were to be followed as a rule by Parliament, no one would dare to spend money or engage in trade at all. An Act of Parliament does not make a thing right or wrong, it only makes it legal or illegal, and it would be very hard if people who had obeyed the law all their lives were to be punished because Parliament had suddenly changed its ideas.

Freedom of the Individual (*continued*): The Slavery of Toil—Freeing the Worker.

*"Work! work! work!
While the cock is crowing aloof;
And work! work! work!
Till the stars shine through the roof.
It's oh! to be a slave
Along with a barbarous Turk,
Where a woman has never a soul to save,
If this is Christian work!"*

Hood: "Song of the Shirt."

We have not, happily, had to set any of our countrymen free from slavery such as that which existed in the West Indies; but there is a slavery of work which is often even more cruel and hard to bear than the slavery of a master. A great deal has been done during the present century to set free English men, and more especially English women and children, from the slavery of *long hours and overwork* from which they suffered.

There are many men and women now alive who can remember the dark days when men, women and, indeed, young children, were set to work in mines and factories for twelve, and sometimes even for *fifteen*, hours a day. In those days work was indeed to many a slavery scarcely less terrible—sometimes, indeed, more terrible—than that which was endured by the negroes in Jamaica.

Few could hear the stories which were told of this overwork and its bad results without feeling for the sufferers and yearning to see the long hours of labour shortened. Unluckily, the workers found few who knew what they had to undergo, and fewer still who were ready to take trouble to make other people understand it.

Happily, however, there were Englishmen whose hearts were touched by the sorrows of their fellow-countrymen, and who made it the special work of their lives to make these sad stories known, and to try and get Parliament and the nation to do something towards mending matters.

It was not an easy task. Few were found to say that they thought the long hours and the overwork a good thing, but many good and wise men were found who said that it was a dangerous thing to interfere with the right of men and women to work as long as they pleased, and that even parents had a right to say how long their children should work, and that no one ought to interfere with them.

There is a great deal of truth in what these men said. We have just been reading in this chapter how in a great many ways Englishmen had been fighting for greater freedom, and had succeeded in winning it. It is certainly true, that to prevent a man from doing what he likes with his own time, with the labour of his own hands, is to interfere with his freedom.

Happily, however, English people have a way of getting a good thing done by means of a little "give and take," and they have agreed that it is better to give up a little freedom in one direction in order to gain great freedom in another.

If we were to name any one Englishman as being the leader of the movement for shortening the hours of labour, we should give the name of **Anthony Ashley-Cooper**, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury, who as far back as the year 1833 brought in a Bill for limiting the hours of labour in factories, and who fought for the cause down to the end of his long life in 1885. But others had been at work before him, and there were others who worked with him.

In the year 1802 the hours of apprentices were shortened to *twelve hours a day*. In 1819 children under nine years of age were forbidden to work in the cotton mills; and children under sixteen were limited to *twelve hours'* work a day, and were forbidden to work at night. In the reign of William IV. (1833) a great change was made by compelling children to be sent as "*half-timers*"—that is, compelling them to be sent to school during the half of the day in which they were not at work. So far, the children only had been cared for. It was to Lord Ashley that a first victory for the *women* was due. Their hours were fixed (1844) at not more than twelve hours a day.

Other Acts were passed, all helping to lighten the labour of women and children. Inspectors were appointed to see that the law

was obeyed. In 1847 came perhaps the most important change of all, when the hours of work of women and young persons in the textile mills were limited to *ten hours*. This great change did not affect women and young persons only, but it affected the men working in the factories also, for the mills could not be kept open after the women had left, and thus the men's day also was limited to ten hours. The great workers for this Bill were **Lord Shaftesbury**, **Mr. Fielden**, Member of Parliament for Oldham, and **Mr. Oastler**, Member for Huddersfield.

Since the Ten Hours Bill was passed, still further changes have been made. The work in many factories has been reduced to *nine* hours a day.

Laws have been passed shortening the hours of railway servants; and in 1894 the Government of the country set a great example by shortening the hours of work in the Government workshops, the great dockyards and arsenals, to *eight hours a day*. Many people honestly believed that such changes as those which have been described would do great harm, and would injure the trade and industry of the country. But this has not hitherto proved to be the case; on the other hand, there can be no doubt that the shortening of hours has been a blessing to millions, and has given to those who were formerly slaves to their work leisure in which to enjoy their lives, and freedom to use their minds and their bodies according to their own inclinations during their own time. This is indeed a great freedom to have won.

Freedom of Thought and Religious Opinion.

"Give me liberty to know, to utter, and to argue freely according to conscience, above all liberties."—Milton: *"The Liberty of Unlicensed Printing."*

There is hardly a time in English history in which we do not find some body of wise and brave men and women striving to win greater **liberty of thought**, and the right to hold their own opinions about religious matters without interference. In our own days there is little more to be done, for the battle has at last been won, and long before the year 1815 also many a victory had been won for the same

cause; but there were still some strongholds to be attacked and won even at the beginning of this century.

In the first place, there still existed laws which prevented persons holding particular religious beliefs from enjoying the same rights as were allowed to all other citizens. These laws were directed against the **Roman Catholics**, the "**Dissenters**"—that is to say, Protestants who "dissented" or differed from the Church of England—and the **Jews**. We have read in an earlier chapter how it came about that these laws were made, and we have also seen that some of the most severe laws of the kind had already been done away with; but some of them still remained. For instance, the Roman Catholics felt it very unjust that in Ireland, where they formed a large majority of the people, they should not be allowed to hold public offices, to dispose of their property as they pleased, to vote for Members of Parliament, or to be elected Members of Parliament.

In England and Scotland also there were still special laws in force against the Roman Catholics, but they were less severe than those which existed in Ireland. It was still the law, however, that before a man could be appointed to certain public offices, or take his degree at the Universities, he must take an oath, called the "*Oath of Supremacy and Allegiance*." The oath was drawn up in words which prevented any Roman Catholic, and, indeed, any Dissenter, from taking it, for it would have made them declare that they believed things to be true which in their conscience they thought to be untrue. And thus many loyal Roman Catholics and Dissenters who would have served the country well if they had been allowed to do so, or who might have become successful scholars at the Universities, were kept out by the law.

In fairness it must be said that though the laws against the Roman Catholics were very old-fashioned, and in many cases very unjust, the better feeling which had grown up between Protestants and Roman Catholics in Great Britain, and to some extent also in Ireland, had led to the laws being used with much less severity than had been the case in earlier days. Still, there could be no doubt the time had come for doing away with the laws altogether, and allowing all loyal and true subjects to serve the country with equal advantages and under equal conditions. But in this, as in very many other great changes, it was necessary to go step by step, for the people who had been long accustomed to the old laws, required to be taught to agree to the change.

In 1791, when Pitt was Prime Minister, an Act was passed in Great Britain which did much to improve the condition of Roman Catholics in that country, and in the two following years, 1792 and 1793, great

changes were made in Ireland also. Roman Catholics were allowed to carry on their religious services as they pleased, to dispose of their property as they wished; they were allowed on certain conditions to vote for Members of Parliament, and to hold certain offices from which they had hitherto been shut out.

Pitt, who was always in favour of doing justice to the Roman Catholics, proposed to allow them to become Members of Parliament, but to this King George III. would not agree, and Pitt, like an honest man, resigned his office rather than consent to what he believed to be unjust.

Little by little during the following years changes were made, all of which helped to free the Roman Catholics from the laws of which they complained. It was not, however, till the year 1828 that the most important step of all was taken. It was in that year that a famous and eloquent Irishman, named **Daniel O'Connell**, began to demand in earnest what was called the **Catholic Relief Bill**—that is to say, a Bill which was to free the Roman Catholics in Ireland once for all from the restraints which still remained.

O'Connell succeeded in winning the support of the Roman Catholics in Ireland, and threatened to break up the Union between Great Britain and Ireland if Parliament refused to grant his demands. A very large party in England agreed with O'Connell, but the Duke of Wellington in the House of Lords strongly opposed him. At last, in the year 1829, the Bill was passed. The old *Oath of Supremacy* was altered, and a new one put in its place, which Roman Catholics were willing to take. Roman Catholics were allowed to become members of either House of Parliament, and to be appointed to almost any office in the State. The only three offices of importance which they were, and still are, forbidden to fill, are those of **Regent, Lord Chancellor of England, and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland**.¹

But this is not quite the end of what has to be told of the steps which were taken to give greater freedom in matters of religion and opinion during the present century. It was not only the Roman Catholics who had a grievance against the laws. There were two sets of people who complained, and complained with reason. These were the **Jews** and the **Dissenters**—that is to say, the members of Protestant Churches other than the Church of England or the Established Church of Scotland.

For many hundred years the **Jews** had received very hard treatment in almost every part of Europe, and had been refused many of the

¹ By the Act of Settlement passed in the reign of Queen Anne (see page 568), it is provided that the Sovereign must always be a Protestant.

rights of citizens. It is pleasant to think that England has now thrown open every form of office¹ to the Jews. But the work was not fully done till the year 1858, in which year the law was altered so as to allow Jews to become members of the House of Commons. The change, besides being a just and a right one, has been well rewarded, for not only have the Jews living in this country helped by their skill and enterprise to make it prosperous, but they are now to be numbered among the most loyal subjects of the British Crown.

One more change had still to be made. Though nearly all the old laws which interfered with the freedom of religious opinion had been done away with, there remained one point which had to be dealt with. At the **Universities of Oxford and Cambridge** it was still the rule that every member of the University who wished to take what is called the "*Degree of Master of Arts*,"² or who sought to be appointed to certain positions in the University, must sign a declaration that he was a *Member of the Church of England*. This declaration was called the "*Test*," and several Bills were brought into Parliament at different times for "*the abolition of Tests*." It was not, however, till the year 1871, when **Mr. Gladstone** was Prime Minister, that an Act was passed which finally did away with the Tests at the Universities. Since that time the appointments at the Universities have been open to all students who show themselves fit by their learning, and now it can fairly be said that **full religious liberty** is enjoyed by every man and woman in the United Kingdom.

Freedom of Communication—The Steamboat and the Locomotive.

"What could be more palpably absurd or ridiculous than the prospect held out of locomotives travelling twice as fast as stage coaches?"—Quarterly Review (time of the construction of the first railways).

Another freedom which has come within the present century is the freedom to move about with ease over long distances by sea and by land at a very small cost. This freedom has for the most part been given to us, not by changes in the law, but by the skill of inventors who

¹ Except those mentioned above.

² Usually written "M.A."

have found out the means whereby we can travel swiftly and surely by the help of the power of steam.

The history of the **steamboat** begins a little before the present century, for experiments with a boat moved by a steam engine are said to have been made in 1787. It was not, however, till after 1800 that steamboats really began to be used. The lead was taken in the matter in the United States, where **Fulton** started a regular steamboat on the River Hudson in 1807. Five years later the "**Comet**," the strange-



THE "COMET."

looking craft of which a picture is here given, began to run regularly on the Clyde. Here is a brief account of one of the earliest steamers. It was written by a French officer in the year 1815, and describes a voyage from Philadelphia to New York, in the United States:—

"The wheels, which are put in motion by the steam, are placed laterally beyond the cabin, and give motion to the vessel by acting as oars. They are of iron, 20 feet in diameter. Each of them is composed of two circles, 3 feet apart, between which are fixed planks of wood 2 feet wide, which are rapidly moved by the steam. The continual noise which this occasions resembles that of a watermill, and I am disposed to believe that the wheels of such mills first gave the idea of employing wheels of a similar kind which could be put in motion by steam. The centre of the boat is occupied by the mechanism of the steam-engine. The machine, and consequently the progress of the vessel, is stopped at pleasure by opening valves to let out the steam, and is set going in an instant by closing them. The steamboat went at the rate of six miles an hour."

In describing the passage of the steamer through rough water the writer becomes quite enthusiastic :—

"The steamer performed its voyage in a wonderful manner. A real equinoctial hurricane was blowing, and the boat was navigating in an open bay, with a violent contrary swell, yet the motion was scarcely felt. Ennobled by the storm, the dashing of its oary wheels gave a certain character of grandeur to its progress which under such circumstances was really triumphant."

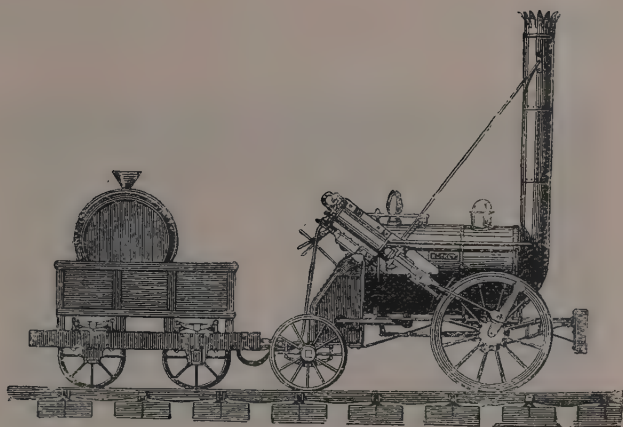
Once begun, the progress in building steamers has never stopped. In 1838 the first screw-steamer was built on the River Thames, and the screw has now become much more used than the paddle. Steamers have lately been built 200 yards in length, and capable of steaming across the Atlantic in all weathers at the rate of 21 knots an hour.

Great as has been the change which has been brought about by the invention of the steamship, that which has followed, the invention of the locomotive engine, has been greater still. It was to George Stephenson, the working lad of Northumberland, that we owe this great invention. He it was who first succeeded in planning and building an engine which would run easily and pull a load after it.

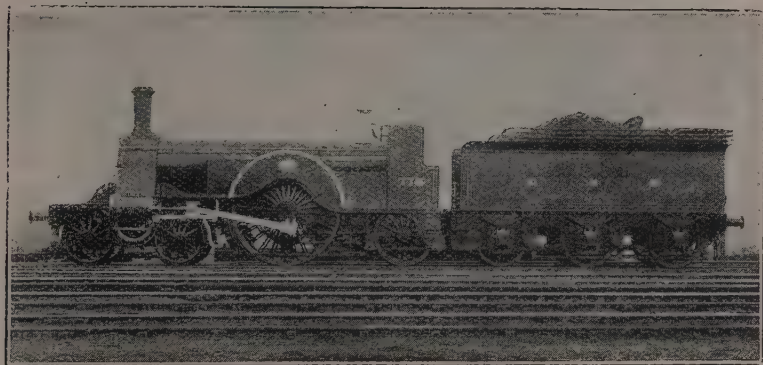
In October, 1829, a great trial or competition was held between four engines which had been designed by different makers. The engines were the "*Perseverance*," the "*Sanspareil*," the "*Novelty*," and the "*Rocket*." The "*Rocket*" was George Stephenson's engine. It was soon seen which was the best of the four. The "*Novelty*" would not budge, the "*Perseverance*" crept along at a foot's pace, the "*Sanspareil*" broke down, but the "*Rocket*" not only ran with ease, but pulled a train of waggons after it at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour. This was indeed a triumph, and from that time forward the success of the locomotive engine was assured.

The Liverpool and Manchester Railway was opened on the 15th September, 1830. A network of railways soon spread all over the United Kingdom and soon also to Europe and America. In our day there is not a country in the world where a railway is not to be found, and yet so quickly has the change taken place that many a man who has travelled from London to York in three hours and a half can remember making the same journey in the old mail coach, when the four horses changed every stage, and, driven at the best of their speed, took twenty-four hours to cover the distance.

The law, too, has had something to do with giving us freedom to travel about. The old Turnpikes on the high roads at which tolls were collected have been done away with. The taxes upon travelling, which are raised in the form of taxes upon tickets, have been reduced. The

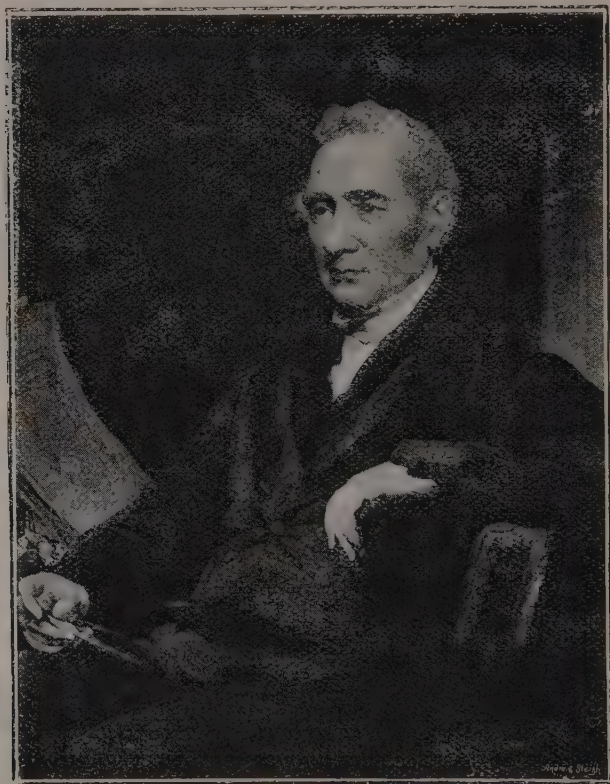


THE "ROCKET."



A GREAT NORTHERN ENGINE.

railway companies have been compelled by law to carry third-class passengers at not more than a penny a mile, and many of the companies actually charge less. Parliament has also compelled the



GEORGE STEPHENSON.

railways to run a number of special cheap trains for workmen on the way to and from their work. Travelling, which sixty years ago was the privilege of the few, has now become the daily habit of all classes, rich and poor alike.

Freedom of the Press—Cheap Postage—The Electric Telegraph.

*"I'll put a girdle round the earth
In forty minutes."*—*Shakespeare : Midsummer Night's Dream.*

As far back as the time of Henry VIII. we read of greater freedom being gained in the matter of **printing books**, and learnt how, for the first time, leave was given to print the Bible in the English language. After the invention of printing, all sorts of laws and rules forbidding the printing of books were passed from time to time, but there were always Englishmen to be found who wished to see these laws altered, and greater freedom given.

During the time of the great war between England and France, the rules against printing books of which the Government did not approve, and especially against printing newspapers and political pamphlets, were particularly strict. The Government feared lest men should be persuaded by what they read to accept the teaching of the leaders of the Revolution in France, and of their followers in this country.

It is doubtful whether very much good came of the interference of the Government, or of the constant punishments of those who offended, but as long as the war lasted very little was done towards helping on the cause of **Freedom of the Press**. Indeed, much was done to make it more difficult than before for the people of this country to obtain books and news cheaply. To begin with, there was a heavy **tax upon paper**; then again, every **newspaper** was taxed, till in 1815 there was actually a tax of *fourpence a copy* on every newspaper. So it can easily be imagined that cheap newspapers such as we now have were quite out of the question.

But during the present century there have been very great changes. The laws under which people could be punished for writing things which were disagreeable to the Government have been done away with, and men can write what they please, as long as it be not calculated to injure other people in particular ways laid down by the law, or to offend against good manners in a way which the law forbids.

The tax upon newspapers was taken off altogether in 1870. In 1855 the last **duties upon papers** were taken off, and now not only can a newspaper be printed and sold without any tax being paid, but it

can be sent by post from one end of the United Kingdom to another for a halfpenny.

Nor must we forget that great institution the **Post Office**, which has done so much to spread information throughout the country and throughout the world. At the beginning of the century the price for sending letters by post was so heavy that most people never wrote letters at all, and those who did send them wrote as seldom as they could. The letters travelled slowly by the coaches, and thousands of places were without any post offices at all.

At length, however, the postage on letters was reduced to 4d. (1839), and the very next year to 1d. It will help us to understand what a great difference the cheap postage made if we compare the number of letters sent in 1839, the last year of the fourpenny post, with the number sent in 1896, under the *penny postage*. The number sent in 1839 was 82,470,596. In 1896 the number of letters and post-cards had risen to 2,148,700,000.

The great work which the Post Office has done in other ways, in carrying **parcels**, in keeping a **Savings Bank**, and in helping people to save their money, is well known, nor must the wonderful invention of the **Electric Telegraph** be forgotten.

It was as late as the year 1838-39 that the first regular **Electric Telegraph** was set up in this country. In the year 1868 the Post Office undertook the management of the Telegraphs, and in 1896 more than seventy-eight million telegrams were sent. In 1858 the first **Electric Cable** was laid between the United Kingdom and America, but it was not till 1866 that a working cable was completed. There are now (1897) nine cables from this country to America.

The cheapness of paper has led to the printing of millions of **cheap Books**, some of them good and some of them bad, and few people are now too poor to buy a book for themselves.

It must not be supposed, however, that because we can send letters to each other every day for a penny, or can talk to the end of the world in a few seconds by means of the telegraph wire, or because we can travel from place to place at fifty miles an hour for a penny a mile, that we have, for those reasons alone, become any better or much wiser than our forefathers. What a man says and thinks will not be wiser or better because he sends it over a telegraph wire. The man himself will not lead a better life, or even be a much wiser man, because he can travel from place to place instead of living quietly in his own home.

What these great changes have done is to give us, in these days, the *power of learning*, and the *opportunities for gaining fresh information*,

which were denied to our forefathers. It must depend upon ourselves and upon our teachers and leaders whether we really benefit by all these wonderful discoveries and arrangements. Happily, there have been wise men in this country who knew well that all these things could be properly made use of if people were taught to understand and to value them. We have read how, throughout the country, thousands of schools have been set up, and how every child in England and Scotland is now compelled to go to school, and we may hope, therefore, that as the means of obtaining knowledge is increased, so also the power of the British people to make a right use of that knowledge will be increased also. If this were not so, the *freedom* of which we have spoken would be of very little use, and perhaps more of a curse than a blessing.

Free Trade—Freedom of Parliamentary Voting.

*"Thy winds, O God, are free to blow,
 Thy streams are free to drive and flow,
 Thy clouds are free to roam the sky;
 Let man be free, his arts to ply.
 Give us freedom! Give us freedom!
 Free Trade."—Ebenezer Elliott: "Corn Law Hymns," No. 2.*

In an earlier chapter we have read something about the *Freeing of Trade and Industry*, a work which was almost entirely done during the present century, though it had its beginning as far back as the year 1776, when a great writer, named Adam Smith, wrote a famous book called "**The Wealth of Nations.**" In this book he pointed out, among many other matters, that it was a mistake to believe that the *taxes* or *duties* put upon goods brought into a country were really paid by the people of the country from which the goods came.

He showed, for instance, that if a tax of five shillings were put upon a quarter of wheat coming from a foreign country, the result was that the wheat cost the buyer five shillings more than it would have done without the tax; that the miller who bought it had to pay five shillings more in his turn, and the shopman who bought the flour five shillings more; and, lastly, those who bought the loaves made out of the flour had to pay five shillings more on the bread they ate. And thus it was not the foreigner who had to pay the tax, but the people in this country

who were really taxing themselves. This seems clear enough now, but it was a long time before the truth was understood.

At the beginning of the century there was scarcely anything which came into the country, and very few things which were made in the country, which were not taxed in one way or another. Here is a famous passage which was written by the Rev. Sydney Smith, in which he describes how everything in the country was taxed one way or another:—

“Taxes upon every article which enters the mouth or covers the back, or is placed under the foot; taxes upon everything which it is pleasant to see, hear, feel, smell, or taste; taxes upon warmth, light, and locomotion; taxes on everything on earth and the water under the earth, on everything that comes from abroad or is grown at home; taxes on the raw material; taxes on every fresh value that is added to it by the industry of man; taxes on the sauce which pampers appetite and the drug that restores him to health; on the ermine which decorates the judge and the rope which hangs the criminal, on the poor man's salt and the rich man's spice, on the brass nails of the coffin and the ribbons of the bride—at bed or board, downlying or uprising, we must pay. The schoolboy whips his taxed top; the beardless youth manages the taxed horse with a taxed bridle on a taxed road; and the dying Englishman, pouring his medicine, which has paid 7 per cent., into a spoon that has paid 15 per cent., flings himself back upon his chintz bed, which has paid 22 per cent., and expires in the arms of an apothecary who has paid a license of £100 for the privilege of putting him to death. His whole property is then immediately taxed from 2 to 10 per cent. Besides the probate, large fees are demanded for burying him in the chancel; his virtues are handed down to posterity on taxed marble; and he is then gathered to his fathers—to be taxed no more.”¹

We have seen how, during the present century, nearly all the taxes of which Sydney Smith so wittily speaks have been done away with. It is to **Richard Cobden** and his friends that this result is chiefly due. The **Abolition of the Corn Laws**, which put duties upon corn, was followed by the abolition of the duties on hundreds of other articles.

At the present time taxes are few in number, though some of them weigh heavily upon those who have to pay them, but the duties upon goods brought into the country have all been taken off, with the exception of duties upon the following articles: **wine, beer, and spirits, tobacco, tea, lace, gold, and silver.**² Thus we see that in the *freedom of our trade and commerce*, as in so many other things, a great step has been made during the present century.

We must find a place here for a mention of a step which was taken in the year 1872, with the object of securing **Freedom of Parliamentary Voting**. This was accomplished by the passing of “**The**

¹ *Edinburgh Review*, 1820.

² There are still a few small articles in which spirits are used on which duties are also paid.

Ballot Act." Up to the time of the passing of the Act votes for Parliamentary elections were given openly; that is to say, that the name of the person who voted was taken down as well as that of the person he voted for. This would seem at first sight a fair and reasonable thing, for no one ought to be ashamed of using the right which has been given him in the way he thinks wisest and best. But, unfortunately, experience has proved that when votes are given openly very bad consequences are certain to follow in many cases.

In the first place, people may be induced to give their votes to a particular candidate for the sake of reward, or, in other words, may take a bribe. Nothing can be worse than such a practice as this, for the man who takes the bribe sells his honour, and instead of doing that which he thinks is best for the nation does that which will give him some personal advantage.

In the second place, bribery gives great power to those who are rich, and makes money the real ruler of the country. No greater calamity can overtake a nation than that which befalls it when men have power and influence, not because they are wise, good, or patriotic, but because they are rich. It has been said that "the love of money is the root of all evil," and there is a great deal of truth in the saying.

Besides the danger of bribery, there was always the danger of "intimidation." Those who could not be bought were very often compelled to give their votes through fear. Sometimes men voted for those who employed them, or for their landlords, not because they agreed with them, but because they were afraid of losing their employment or their houses. Sometimes men were threatened with actual violence if they did not vote in a certain way, and this was nearly as bad as the bribery. Luckily, Englishmen are so stubborn that it is not easy as a rule to drive them into doing or refusing to do a particular thing by threats; but sometimes, no doubt, the "intimidation" at elections was very serious.

In order to do away with these evils the Ballot Act was passed. It provided that every man should give his vote in secret by marking a cross on the ballot paper against the name of the candidate whom he wished to see elected. The paper, when it has been marked, is put into a sealed box or ballot box, and is mixed with hundreds or thousands of other ballot papers. The result is that nobody can tell how any particular person has voted, and it is equally useless to bribe or to threaten a voter, for no one can tell after the election is over how the person who has been bribed or threatened really voted. Voting by ballot is now perfectly secret, and thus we have secured "**Freedom of Parliamentary Voting.**"

The Improvement of Machinery.

"Richard Arkwright too will have his monument, a thousand years hence; all Lancashire and Yorkshire, and how many other shires and countries, with their machineries and industries, for his monument!"—Carlyle: "Past and Present."

We have already spoken of some of the wonderful inventions of the last hundred years—of the **steamship**, the **locomotive engine**, and the **electric telegraph**. Something must also be said about those great inventions which have helped to supply the people of this country with good clothing at a low price, and which have enabled us to become the manufacturers of clothing and of stuff goods for millions of people outside the United Kingdom.

We must go back, however, further than the present century for the first of these great inventions—namely, the **spinning jenny**, invented by **Hargreaves** in 1767. This machine enabled cotton to be spun by machinery instead of by hand, and as it had eight spindles to carry the cotton "bobbins," or reels, it worked much faster than the old hand-machines with a single spindle.

In 1769 **Arkwright** made great improvements in Hargreaves's machines, and he also invented the plan still used in every cotton and worsted mill, by which the thread is passed under a large and then under a small roller for the purpose of drawing out and lengthening the thread.

A few years later (1779) **Crompton** invented a machine which had the advantages of Hargreaves's spinning jenny, and of Arkwright's improvements. The new machine was known as the "**spinning mule**."

Since that time enormous improvements have been made in all the machinery both for spinning and weaving, and the general use of steam-power to drive the mills has enabled manufacturers to turn out millions of yards of cotton, woollen, and linen cloth at prices which have put the material within the reach of all.

For some time those who were engaged in working the old hand-machines were greatly opposed to the new machinery. They said that the machinery would do away with the need for nearly all the workers, and that thousands of men and women would be thrown out of work and ruined. In many places they went so far as to get up riots and to break and burn the new machines. It was not long,

however, before it became clear that instead of fewer workers being required, more were wanted than before, employment became more regular, and wages steadily improved. And now only the most ignorant or the most evil-minded persons endeavour to oppose new machinery.



CHAPTER LXXVII.

LITERATURE AND ART SINCE 1714.

Writers and Artists of the Eighteenth Century.

"The end of all earthly learning being virtuous action, those skills which serve most to bring forth that, have a most just title to be princes over the rest; wherein if we can show it rightly the poet is worthy to have it before any other competitors."—Sir Philip Sidney: "The Uses of Poetry."

In an earlier part of this book two chapters were given up to a short account of the great poets and writers, and of the artists and great men of science, who lived during the Stuart Period. The number of pages which were given up to this description was far too small to allow of anything more than a mention of these famous men and their works. And if it were hard to tell of the great authors and artists of the Stuart time in a few pages, how much more difficult is the task when we have to describe—or, at any rate, to name—the famous persons who have adorned the Literature and the Art of the United Kingdom since the accession of George I.

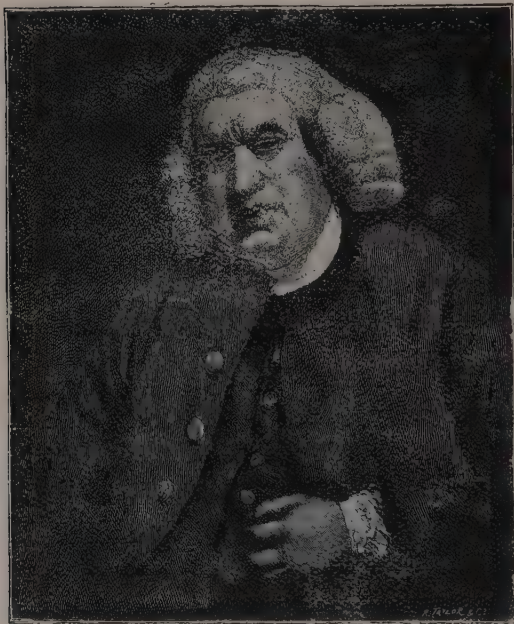
But what was said in a previous passage about great writers is true. It is not possible to understand the history of a country without knowing something of the great writers and thinkers who lived in it; nor is it possible to understand the writings and the thoughts of those great men unless we know something of the history of the country in which they lived.

Little more can be told here of authors or artists, beyond the names which they bore and the chief work which they did. There is only one real way of knowing anything about an author or an artist, and that is to read the books of the one and to look at the works of the other. Until

we have done this, it is no use thinking that we know anything of those whose names are mentioned here.

We have already learnt something of the literary history of the country down to the end of the reign of **Queen Anne**, and some of the famous writers of that reign who lived on into the reign of George I., and later still, have been already mentioned. Among these are **Addison, Steele, Swift, Daniel Defoe, and Pope**; and among the great

scientific men there are also **Sir Isaac Newton** and **Sir Christopher Wren**, both of whom died in the reign of George I. These, therefore, will not be mentioned again now.



DR. SAMUEL JOHNSON.
(After the portrait by Sir Joshua Reynolds.)

JOHNSON.

We will speak first of **Samuel Johnson**, who was born at Lichfield in 1709. Johnson was not only a great writer, but a very remarkable and interesting man. The history of his life has been written in a book which has become very famous — namely, "*Boswell's Life of*

Johnson." **Boswell** was the friend and companion of Johnson throughout a great part of his life, and he wrote down for his book an account of the sayings and doings of his famous friend, which helps us to understand how great and how clever a man Samuel Johnson was. Johnson's best-known writings are his famous "*English Dictionary*," his "*Lives of the Poets*," and his "*Vanity of Human Wishes*." He also wrote a great many other books and papers. He was a friend of most of the chief writers of his time, who liked and admired him, in spite of

his somewhat rough manner and strange appearance. He died in the reign of George III. (1784).

GOLDSMITH.

Samuel Johnson was a great Englishman. We have now to speak of an Irishman who lived in Johnson's time, and whose name will be remembered as that of a clever writer, and especially as the author of one very famous book. This is **Oliver Goldsmith** (b. 1728, d. 1774), who was born at Kilkenny. The great book which has made him famous is "*The Vicar of Wakefield*," a sad and beautifully told story, describing the life of a clergyman with all its sorrows and pleasures, its small adventures and its trials. Scarcely less famous than "*The Vicar of Wakefield*" is Goldsmith's play, "*She Stoops to Conquer*." "*The Deserted Village*" is the best known of Goldsmith's poems.

GRAY.

There must be few readers of English, whether they be young or old, who do not know the name and something of the work of **Thomas Gray** (b. 1716, d. 1771). It was he who wrote the ever-famous poem called "*The Elegy in a Country Churchyard*," which begins with the well-known lines—

"The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd wind slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me."

There is, indeed, scarcely a line in the whole poem which is not well known, and many of the lines have become so familiar that they are quoted by thousands of people who do not know whence they come. Gray received his education at Eton College and at Cambridge, and his poetry, and, indeed, all his works, show him to have been a man of learning, fine feeling, and good taste.

THE NOVELISTS: RICHARDSON, SMOLLETT, FIELDING.

There are few people in this country now who do not find pleasure in the reading of novels. It is to this time that we must look for the real beginning of English novel-writing, and three famous names must be remembered, the names of **Samuel Richardson** (b. 1689, d. 1761), **Tobias Smollett** (b. 1721, d. 1771), and the greatest of the three, **Henry Fielding** (b. 1707, d. 1754). There is much in the novels written by these three writers that does not suit the taste of those who read novels in the present day. But the books they wrote are full of good spirits, and truthful descriptions of men and things, and as such will always be read by many.

The most famous of **Richardson's** stories are two long novels, called '*Clarissa Harlowe*' and '*Pamela*.' '*Roderick Random*' and '*Peregrine Pickle*' are perhaps the best known of **Smollett's** books. Smollett also wrote a portion of a *History of England*, which was greatly read at one time. More remarkable than any of the books

which have been named was **Fielding's** great novel, called '*Tom Jones*,' which was published in 1749.



WILLIAM HOGARTH.
(From the print by Himself.)

Artists :

HOGARTH,
REYNOLDS,
GAINSBOROUGH,
ROMNEY,
FLAXMAN.

We must leave the authors for a short time, and say a word about the artists. It has often been the work of great writers to teach useful lessons by holding up the faults and vices of their time to the laughter or the indignation of their readers. The same work was done in

another way by the famous painter, **William Hogarth** (b. 1697, d. 1764). In a number of finely drawn and well-painted pictures he caricatured the vices and the follies of his time. The subjects which he drew are often unpleasant and sometimes terrible, but no one who sees them can deny that they help to make what is bad, hateful and ridiculous. Some of Hogarth's pictures are to be seen in the National Gallery in London. In the same place may be

seen the pictures of a greater artist than Hogarth, namely, **Sir Joshua Reynolds** (b. 1723, d. 1792), the most famous of all English portrait-painters. Many of Sir Joshua Reynolds's pictures have been copied so often that they are familiar to all Englishmen, and there can be few who have not seen a print or a photograph of some famous picture by Sir Joshua; but the best way of understanding what the pictures were is to look at those which may be seen in the great public picture galleries. Unluckily, Sir Joshua was not careful to use the best paints, and, in consequence, some of his best pictures have faded, and are not so bright and beautiful as they used to be.

GAINSBOROUGH, ROMNEY, FLAXMAN.

And here may be mentioned the names of two other famous painters—**Thomas Gainsborough**, born at Sudbury in Suffolk, 1727, died 1788, and of **George Romney**, the well-known painter of portraits, born in Lancashire in 1734, died 1802. The name of **John Flaxman** (b. 1755, d. 1826) must be mentioned as that of one of the few great sculptors our country has produced.

Edmund Burke.

"Burke is among the greatest of those who have wrought marvels in the prose of our English tongue."—*J. Morley: "Life of Burke."*

Outside the gate of Trinity College, the famous University of Dublin, there stand two statues which everyone who has ever been in Dublin knows well. They represent two great Irishmen, both of whom were among the most famous writers of the day in which they lived. Of one we have already spoken; namely, of **Oliver Goldsmith**. The name of the other may also be found in an earlier page of this book (Chapter LXVII.), for **Edmund Burke** was a statesman as well as an author. But no account of the great writers of our country could be written without a mention of Edmund Burke and his works. He wrote on many subjects, not only on politics and upon what he thought to be the duty of the country at home and abroad, but upon other matters which had nothing to do with politics—as, for instance, his essay on *"The Sublime and Beautiful."* Nearly all he wrote he wrote well, and few men did more to teach and guide the people of his time than Edmund Burke.

Burke was for a long time a member of the House of Commons, and



Photo: Lawrence, Dublin.

STATUE OF GOLDSMITH.

fighting against the violence and cruelty of the French Revolution. He had always been a friend of reform and wise changes, but he was a bitter enemy of lawlessness and violence. The famous "*Letters upon a Regicide Peace*," in which he attacked the Government for making peace with the French, had much to do in convincing people in this country that France was not to be trusted, and that peace could only be won after France had been beaten. It is pleasant to

some of his speeches are among the most splendid models of writing to be found in the English language. There is reason, however, to believe that Burke was not a good speaker, but that people preferred to read his speeches rather than to listen to them. It was Burke who was foremost in urging George III. to do justice to the American colonists, and thus to avert the danger of war. We have seen how he failed. It was Burke, too, who was the foremost in



Photo: Lawrence, Dublin.

BURKE'S STATUE.

think that, while at times Irishmen of great ability have been enemies of the welfare of the United Kingdom, and especially of England, Edmund Burke, one of the noblest and ablest Irishmen that ever lived, was not only a true lover and faithful servant of England, but that he left no doubt of his goodwill when in one of his works he said of England, "This is my adopted, my dearer and more comprehensive country."

Cowper, Sheridan, Campbell, Lamb.

"Wisdom married to immortal verse."—Wordsworth.

We now come to the names of the great writers who, though they were born in the last century, died in the present century, or just before it began. It is a wonderful list of names: we have reason to be proud of our country, which could produce in so short a time so many famous names. No Englishman can know much about the literature of the country until this "list of names," has become something more than a list, and until he has learned to know and love the work of the great writers whose names are to be found in it.

COWPER.

William Cowper (b. 1731, d. 1800) was born at Berkhamstead. The name of Cowper deserves to be remembered as that of a poet who, though he cannot be ranked under the greatest names of English literature, was yet a man who wrote much that was elegant and finished, a good deal that was really beautiful, and one poem, at any rate, which will always be familiar to English readers. Among the best known of his poems is the one which is quoted here, and which is an example of Cowper's best work.

THE POPLAR FIELD.

"The poplars are felled, farewell to the shade,
And the whispering sound of the cool colonnade;
The winds play no longer and sing in the leaves,
Nor Ouse on his bosom their image receives.

"Twelve years have elaps'd since I last took a view
Of my favourite field, and the bank where they grew;
And now in the grass behold they are laid,
And the tree is my seat, that once lent me a shade.

"The blackbird has fled to another retreat,
Where the hazels afford him a screen from the heat,
And the scene, where his melody charm'd me before,
Resounds with his sweet-flowing ditty no more.

"My fugitive years are all hasting away,
And I must ere long lie as lowly as they,
With a turf on my breast, and a stone at my head,
Ere another such grove shall arise in its stead.

"The change both my heart and my fancy employs,
I reflect on the frailty of man, and his joys;
Short-liv'd as we are, yet our pleasures, we see,
Have a still shorter date, and die sooner than we."

Many of his long pieces, such as "*The Task*," "*Cowper's Table Talk*," and others, are not very much read at the present day. One ballad, however, seems likely to make the name of Cowper immortal, and that is the famous story of *John Gilpin's Ride*. Cowper's "*Letters*" have been printed; they are most beautifully written and are of great interest.

SHERIDAN.

Richard Brinsley Sheridan (b. 1751, d. 1816), one of the brightest wits of the day, was born in Dublin and educated at Harrow School. He was celebrated in his own day as an eloquent, quick-witted, reckless man of fashion, as well as a very clever playwright. He is best known to readers by his famous comedies—*The Rivals*, *The School for Scandal*, and *The Critic*. These plays are still often acted at the present day, and their brilliant humour will always make them favourites with playgoers. Sheridan sat in Parliament as a Whig, and for a time filled a Government office.

CAMPBELL.

Thomas Campbell (b. 1777, d. 1844), a Scottish poet who wrote much, but of whose writing little will be remembered or deserves to be remembered. In one or two poems only did he achieve any real success. It is by one or two such short poems—"The Battle of Hohenlinden" and "*The Battle of The Baltic*," the latter beginning with the well-known lines—

"Of Nelson and the North.
Sing the glorious day's renown,

that Campbell will be remembered, if he be remembered at all.

LAMB.

Charles Lamb (b. 1775, d. 1834). The writings of Charles Lamb have given so much true pleasure to so many people that, though it cannot

be said he was one of our greatest writers, his name must be mentioned. It is by his "*Tales from Shakespeare*" and his "*Essays of Elia*" that he will be best remembered. It is in the "*Essays of Elia*" that Lamb's own gentle, bright, somewhat sad nature shows itself at its best. Lamb worked for the greater part of his life as a clerk in a Government office, but he was happy in having the friendship and esteem of some of the great writers of the day, who loved him for his gentle spirit and admired him for his delicate and fantastic writing.

Byron, Shelley, Keats, Burns, and Scott.

*"But now, thy youngest, dearest one has perished,
The nursling of thy widowhood, who grew
Like a pale flower by some sad maiden cherished,
And fed with true love tears, instead of dew;
Most musical of mourners, weep anew!
Thy extreme hope, the loveliest and the last,
The bloom, whose petals nipt before they blew
Died on the promise of the fruit, is waste;
The broken lily lies—the storm is overpast."*

Shelley: "*Adonaïs*."

BYRON, SHELLEY, AND KEATS.

These three great poets lived and wrote at the same time, and perhaps they have more in common with one another than any other writers of their time. **George Gordon, Lord Byron** (b. 1788, d. 1824), will always be remembered as one of the most brilliant writers of English verse. He was one of those poets whose work was even more read while he was alive than after his death. His fame was not limited to his own country, but his poems were read in every country in Europe. His life was a strange one. Restless in mind and body, he travelled from country to country with a heart seemingly full of discontent with himself and the world, sometimes launching out into fierce attacks upon his enemies, and at other times describing in splendid verse the sights he saw and the thoughts which they raised in his mind. In Greece he joined in the rising of the people against their Turkish oppressors, and some of his finest poems are those which were written to reproach the Greeks for so tamely submitting to the Turk, and to remind them of the wonderful examples of their forefathers who fought for freedom. Such are the famous lines—

"Hereditary bondsmen! Know ye not
 Who would be free themselves must strike the blow?
 By their right arms the conquest must be wrought?
 Will Gaul or Muscovite¹ redress ye? No!

"True, they may lay your proud despoilers low,
 But not for you will Freedom's altars flame.
 Shades of the Helots! triumph o'er your foe:
 Greece! change thy lords, thy state is still the same;
 Thy glorious day is o'er, but not thy years of shame."



LORD BYRON (1814).

(From the portrait by T. Phillips, R.A.)

"*Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*," "*The Prisoner of Chillon*," "*Don Juan*," "*The Bride of Abydos*," are among the most famous of Byron's works. Of his shorter poems many are familiar to all readers. Such is the poem called "*The Destruction of Sennacherib*":

"The Assyrian came down
 like the wolf on the fold,
 And his cohorts were
 gleaming in purple
 and gold;
 And the sheen of their
 spears was like stars
 on the sea,
 When the blue wave
 rolls nightly on deep
 Galilee."

Very familiar, too, are the famous lines on the Battle of Waterloo, which are contained in "*Childe Harold*" and the splendid poem on the sea, which begins with the lines—

"Roll on, thou deep and dark blue Ocean—roll!
 Ten thousand fleets sweep over thee in vain;
 Man marks the earth with ruin—his control
 Stops with the shore;"

¹ France or Russia.

SHELLEY.

Percy Bysshe Shelley (b. 1792, d. 1822), one of the most musical and at the same time most passionate of our English poets. In his short life of thirty years he added to English literature work which will never be forgotten, and which will always take its place in the first rank. His famous poem "*Adonais*" may be compared to **Milton's** "*Lycidas*." It is an elegy or lament over the death of his friend, the poet **Keats**, who died but a year before Shelley himself. Perhaps the most familiar of Shelley's poems is his beautiful "*Ode to the Skylark*," which begins—

"Hail to thee, blithe spirit!
Bird thou never wert,
That from heaven, or near it,
Pourest thy full heart
In profuse strains of unpremeditated art."

Within a few months after Shelley had mourned the death of his friend Keats, he himself was drowned in the Mediterranean near Leghorn. It is a sad thing that so great a genius should have been taken away so young.

KEATS.

John Keats (1795, d. 1821), another singer of wonderful power and beauty, another name famous for all time, even though its bearer lived a shorter time than Shelley. In twenty-five years Keats, the son of a London livery stable-keeper, brought up as a surgeon's apprentice, rose above all difficulties, and made the world know that he was a poet, and a very great poet. For beauty of language, with the power to express deep thoughts in sweet words and melodious tones, Keats has scarcely a match in all our English poetry, rich as it is. "*Endymion*" and "*The Eve of St. Agnes*" are among the best known of his longer poems, and some of his shorter poems are of extraordinary beauty. It was Keats who wrote the well-known lines—

"A thing of beauty is a joy for ever:
Its loveliness increases; it will never
Pass into nothingness; but still will keep
A bower quiet for us, and a sleep
Full of sweet dreams, and health, and quiet breathing."
"Endymion."

Keats died of consumption, at Rome, in his twenty-sixth year.

BURNS.

Robert Burns (b. 1759, d. 1796) was above and before all the poet of Scotland and Scotsmen throughout the world. He was the son of

an Ayrshire farmer, brought up in very poor circumstances to follow the plough, of no education but that which he could gain for himself, and what he could learn from the natural objects which he saw around him. He spoke the language of the Lowlands of Scotland, and in this language, familiar to Scottish ears but not always so familiar to English readers, many of his poems are written. The poems,



ROBERT BURNS.

(From the portrait by Alex. Nasmyth in the National Gallery, Edinburgh.)

and more especially the songs, of Burns, are known to almost every Scotsman who can read; and, though no doubt Burns has not so many readers in England as in Scotland, yet even in the southern part of the United Kingdom the bright-spirited, liberty-loving poet has thousands of lovers and admirers. Among some of Burns's most famous poems are "*The Cotter's Saturday Night*," "*Highland Mary*," "*Tam o' Shanter*," and the famous patriotic Scottish song beginning, "*Scots wha hae*." It was Burns, too, who wrote the well-known lines—

"Is there, for honest poverty,
That hangs his head, and a' that?
The coward slave, we pass him by,
We dare be poor for a' that!
For a' that, and a' that,
Our toils obscure, and a' that;
The rank is but the guinea-stamp.
The man's the gowd for a' that.

* * * * *

"What though on hamely fare we dine,
Wear hodden grey, and a' that;

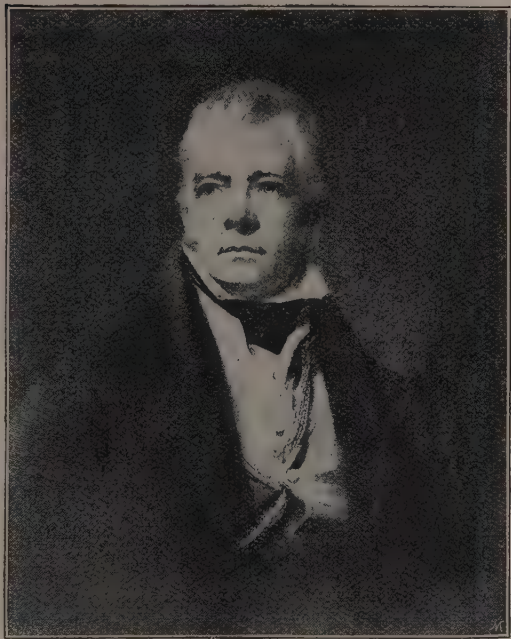
Gie fools their silks, and knaves their wine,
 A man's a man for a' that!
 For a' that, and a' that,
 Their tinsel show, and a' that;
 The honest man, though e'er sae poor,
 Is king o' men for a' that!

* * * *

"A king can mak a
 belted knight,
 A marquis, duke, and
 a' that;
 But an honest man's
 aboon his might
 Guid faith! he maunna
 fa' that!
 For a' that, and a
 that,
 Their dignities, and
 a' that,
 The pith o' sense and
 pride o' worth
 Are higher ranks than
 a' that."

SCOTT.

Walter Scott (b. 1771, d. 1832), born only twelve years later than Robert Burns, who is the second great Scottish poet of whom we have room to speak here, lived on long into the present century, and died in 1832, the



SIR WALTER SCOTT.

(After the portrait by Sir Henry Raeburn).

year of the great Reform Bill. Who does not know the name of **Sir Walter Scott**—"the Wizard of the North," as men sometimes called him—the wonderful writer who gave us the great tales of chivalry which are to be found in "*Ivanhoe*," "*The Talisman*," and "*The Betrothed*," or stories of Scottish life and adventure in such novels as "*Old Mortality*," "*Rob Roy*," and "*Waverley*," or pictures of the England of a past day in "*Woodstock*," "*Peveril of the Peak*," and "*Kenilworth*"? Who has not read the stirring lines of Sir Walter Scott's great poems, "*The Lay of the Last Minstrel*," "*The*

Lady of the Lake," and "*Marmion*," the story of "Young Lochinvar" who bore off his bride on the fleetest of steeds; or the magnificent description of the battle of Flodden Field and the dying moments of *Marmion*, the proud English baron?

Scott, indeed, was a writer for all readers of the English language, of all ages and all tastes. A true Scot by birth and in feeling, no man understood better than he the glories of England, or loved its history and its people better. Here are some famous lines which stir the blood of every British subject, from whatever part of the Empire he comes:—

"Breathes there the man with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath said,
 'This is my own, my native land!'
Whose heart hath ne'er within him burn'd,
As home his footsteps he hath turn'd,
From wandering on a foreign strand?"¹

The Lake Poets—Southey, Wordsworth, Coleridge.

*"Time may restore us in his course
Goethe's sage mind and Byron's force;
But where will Europe's later hour
Again find Wordsworth's healing power?"*

Matthew Arnold.

Among the famous group of poets known as "The Lake Poets" are those who have been mentioned above. They obtained their name from the fact that they all lived and wrote in the Lake District of Cumberland and Westmorland.

Robert Southey (b. 1774, d. 1843) wrote an immense amount of both poetry and prose. Although he became Poet Laureate, it is scarcely probable that much of his poetry will live long. Among his most famous works are "*Thalaba the Destroyer*," and "*The Curse of Kehama*," poems based upon old Asiatic stories. Of his prose works, perhaps the best known and the best written is his celebrated "*Life of Nelson*."

William Wordsworth (b. 1770, d. 1850), perhaps more than any of our English poets, was a great lover of Nature and of Nature's beauties. He wrote much, and much of his writing must always remain in the

¹ "*Lay of the Last Minstrel*."

very first rank, both for depth of thought and for beauty of form. His "*Intimations of Immortality*" is one of the most famous poems in the English language. Among his other well-known works are "*The Excursion*," "*The Ode to Duty*," "*The Prelude*," and many beautiful sonnets. The following lines show us Wordsworth at his best, and they may properly find a place here because they speak of Charles Fox, one of the great men we have been reading about.

"Loud is the Vale!—the voice is up
With which she speaks when storms are gone,
A mighty unison of streams!
Of all her voices, one!

"Loud is the Vale!—this inland depth
In peace is roaring like the sea:
Yon star upon the mountain top
Is listening quietly.

"Sad was I, even to pain depress'd,
Importunate and heavy load!

"The comforter hath found me here,
Upon this lonely road;

"And many thousands now are sad—
Wait the fulfilment of their fear;
For he must die who is their stay,
Their glory disappear.

"A power is passing from the earth
To breathless Nature's dark abyss;
And when the mighty pass away
What is it more than this—

"That man, who is from God sent forth,
Doth yet again to God return?—
Such ebb and flow must ever be;
Then wherefore should we mourn?"

(*Lines composed on reading of the expected death of Fox.*)

Samuel Taylor Coleridge (b. 1772, d. 1834), a friend of Southey and Wordsworth. His work is less known than that of Wordsworth, nor can it be said to be equal to it in any respect. But some of Coleridge's writing is likely to be long remembered, and his strange and weird poem "*The Ancient Mariner*" will always prevent his name being forgotten.

Moore, Macaulay.—The Writers of Our Own Time.

MOORE.

Nor must we forget the name of **Thomas Moore** (b. 1779, d. 1852), or "Tom Moore," as all the world will ever call him. Tom Moore, the tuneful poet of Ireland, who though he lived little in his own country, loved it well and wrote sweet songs about it, which every Irishman knows, and sings, and rejoices in, and which will never be forgotten.

Among the many half-mournful, half-joyful poems and songs which Tom Moore has given to the world are:—"Lalla Rookh," "Odes of Anacreon," "Irish Melodies," "The Loves of the Angels."

MACAULAY.

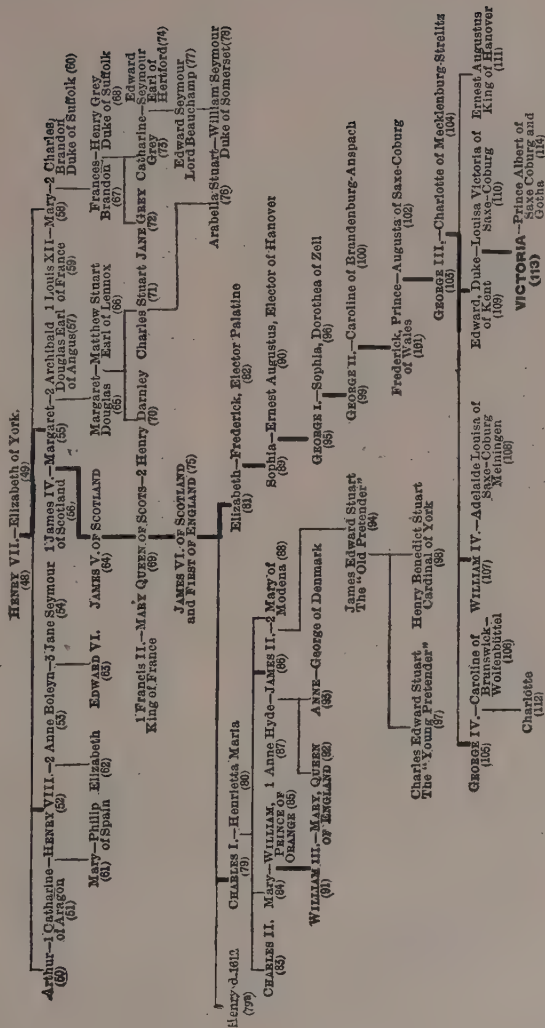
Thomas Babington Macaulay (b. 1800, d. 1859) was a brilliant writer of prose and of ballad verses, which have always been popular on account of their spirit and the easy flow of their stirring lines. His "*History of England*," which was never finished, is a very brilliant work. His "Essays" form one of the most popular books in the English language. The best known of all his works, perhaps, are his famous "*Lays of Ancient Rome*," the story of "How Horatius kept the Bridge," and of "*The Battle of Lake Regillus*," and his poems entitled "*The Battle of Ivry*," and "*The Armada*." Macaulay was well known, not only as a writer but as a politician. He sat for many years in Parliament, was a member of the Government, and a Cabinet Minister.

THE WRITERS OF OUR OWN TIMES.

Now we have come almost down to our own day. Space will not allow us to do more than mention some of the great men and women whose names have become famous in the history of English literature almost within our own lifetime. **Dickens** (b. 1812, d. 1870) and **Thackeray** (b. 1811, d. 1863) are great novelists. **Thomas Carlyle** (b. 1795, d. 1881), the author of a great work on the French Revolution, was for many years occupied in preaching to Englishmen the need for being honest, strenuous and true in all their work. Two great poets, very different from one another, **Tennyson** (b. 1809, d. 1892) and **Browning** (b. 1812, d. 1889), lived and wrote in the last quarter of the present century. **Matthew Arnold** (b. 1822, d. 1888), whose poems are less popular, but are read and greatly loved by many. These and many other names are there, which show how rich our country has been, and still is, in great writers; and there can be no excuse now for Englishmen and Englishwomen knowing nothing of the best books in their language when all are open to them in every public library, and most of them can be obtained for a few shillings or for a few pence in any shop.

THE DESCENT OF THE CROWN TO QUEEN VICTORIA.

Continued from table at page 266.



A LIST OF THE ANGLO-SAXON KINGS AND OF THE SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND AND OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

CHIEF KINGS OF THE HEPTARCHY.

KENT—

Hengist, 457-488 (first king).

Æthelbert, 565-616.

Eadbald, 616-640.

Egbert, 823.

SOUTH SAXONS—

Ella, 491-514 (first king).

Cissa, 514-584.

Conquered 725 by Ine, King of the

[West Saxons.

WEST SAXONS—

Cerdic, 519-534 (first king).

Cynric, 534-560.

Ceawlin, 560-591.

Cadwallo, 685-688.

Ine, 688-726.

Egbert, 800.

EAST SAXONS—

Erchenwin, 527-587 (first king).

Sebert, 597-614.

Egbert, 823.

NORTHUMBRIA (Bernicia and Deira)—

Ida (Bernicia), 547-560 (first king).

Ella (Deira), 560-588. [Deira]

Æthelfrith, 593-617 (Unites Bernicia and

Edwin, 617-633.

Oswald, 635-642.

Oswy, 642-670.

Egfrith, 670-685.

Edbert, 737-757.

Æthelred, 774-778. Restored 790-794

Alfwold, 806-808.

Egbert, 827.

EAST ANGLES—

Uffa, 571-578 (first king).

Redwald, 599-624.

Beorna and Æthelred, 749-758.

Beorna alone, 758-761.

Æthelred, 761-790.

Æthelbert, 790-792.

Egbert, 823.

MERCIA—

Crida, 586-593 (first king).

Wibba, 597-615.

Ceorl, 615-626.

Penda, 626-655.

Peada, 655-656.

Wulfhere, 656-675.

Æthelred, 675-704.

Cendred, 704-709.

Æthelbald, 716-757.

Offa, 755-795.

Egfrith, 795-796.

Cenwulf (Cenulph), 796-819.

Ceolwulf, 819-821.

Beornwulf, 821-823.

Egbert (overlord), 823.

Ludecan, 823-825.

Wiglaf, 825-838.

KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND.

BEFORE THE CONQUEST—

Egbert, 827-836.

Æthelwulf, 836-858.

Æthelbald, 858-860.

Æthelbert, 860-866.

Æthelred I., 866-871.

Alfred, 871-901.

Edward the Elder, 901-925.

Athelstan, 925-940.

Edmund I., 940-946.

Ædred, 946-955.

Edwy, 955-959.

Edgar, 959-975.

Edward the Martyr, 975-979.

Æthelred II. ("The Unready"), 979, de-
posed 1013.

Sweyn (Dane), 1013-1014.

Æthelred II., restored, 1014-1016.

Edmund Ironside, 1016 (reigned 7 months).

Canute, 1017-1035. [1035-1037.]

Harold and Harthacanute, joint sovereigns,

Harold I., sole king, 1037-1040.

Harthacanute, 1040-1042.

Edward the Confessor, 1042-1066.

Harold II. 1066, killed at Hastings.

THE NORMAN KINGS—

William I., 1066-1087.

William II., 1087-1100.

Henry I., 1100-1135.

Stephen, 1135-1154.

THE PLANTAGENET KINGS—

Henry II., 1154-1189.

Richard I., 1189-1199

John, 1199-1216.

Henry III., 1216-1272.

Edward I., 1272-1307.

Edward II., 1307-1327.

Edward III., 1327-1377.

Richard II., 1377-1399.

HOUSE OF LANCASTER—

Henry IV., 1399-1413.

Henry V., 1413-1422.

Henry VI., 1422-1461 (deposed).

HOUSE OF YORK—

Edward IV., 1461-1483.

Edward V., 1483.

Richard III., 1483-1485.

THE TUDOR SOVEREIGNS—

Henry VII., 1485-1509.

Henry VIII., 1509-1547.

Edward VI., 1547-1553.

Mary, 1553-1558.

Elizabeth, 1558-1603.

THE STUART SOVEREIGNS—

James I., 1603-1624.

Charles I., 1625-1649

The Commonwealth, 1649-1660—

Oliver Cromwell (Lord Protector),
1653-1658. [1658-1660.]

Richard Cromwell (Lord Protector),

Charles II., 1660-1685.

James II., 1685-1688 (d. 1701). [d. 1694.]

William III. and Mary, 1689-1702 (Mary

Anne, 1702-1714.

THE HANOVERIAN SOVEREIGNS—

George I., 1714-1727.

George II., 1727-1760.

George III., 1760-1820

George IV., 1820-1830.

William IV., 1830-1837.

Victoria, 1837.

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